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ABSTRACT

Papers from the 1991 joint Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT)/ Foreign Language Association of North Carolina (FLANC) conference are presented. Because the state of North Carolina is in the forefront of state-mandated foreign language education in the elementary schools (FLES), 4 of the 10 articles in this volume address FLES implementation. Papers and authors are as follows: "Writing from the Start: A Task-Oriented Developmental Writing Program for Foreign Language Students" (Virginia M. Scott); "Using Student Feedback to Reinforce Learning: Process and Progress" (Carolyn L. Hansen); "Infusing Critical and Creative Thinking Skills into the Foreign Language Classroom" (Frances S. Hoch and Timothy Hart); "Teaching About Holidays as an Aspect of Culture" (Samia Seragelin); "Reinforcing the Elementary School Curriculum with Content-Based FLES" (Audrey Heining-Boynton); "Celebrating 1992: Rediscovering Our Indigenous and Hispanic Heritages," including suggested readings and resources (Joann McFerran Mount); "Video in the Foreign Language Classroom: Using Commercials: (E.-Annette Koeppel); "Student Attitudes about the Study of Foreign Languages: Report of a Survey," (Randall L. Alford); "A Comparison of Student Performance in Partial Immersion and FLES Programs" (Alline B. Riddick); and "Developing Proficiency-Based Game Approaches" (John I. Liontas). Contains 131 references. (LB)

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SOUTHERN CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING

DIMENSION: LANGUAGE '91

MAKING A WORLD OF DIFFERENCE

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The procedure through which articles are reviewed and accepted for publication in the proceedings volume of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) actually begins with the submission of a proposal, including an abstract, to present a session at the SCOLT Annual Meeting. Once the proposal is received, it is read by members of the Program Committee and either accepted or rejected.

Once the session proposal has been accepted, the presenter(s) is (are) contacted by the Editor and invited to submit an article for publication in *Dimension*. Upon notification of interest, copies of the publication guidelines are sent to the presenter(s). Upon receipt of four copies of the manuscript, the articles submitted are then sent, with the authors' names removed, to the nationally prominent SCOLT Editorial Board, and each article is read by at least three of these specialists. Normally articles are sent to reviewers who have expertise in the area treated in the article. The reviewers are asked to make one of three recommendations: 1) publish as is; 2) publish after rewriting; or 3) do not publish. As a result of this procedure, at least three individuals decide whether or not to include the oral presentation in the annual meeting, and then an additional four people read and approve the article before it is selected to appear in *Dimension*.

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Preface

Each year at the local, state, regional, national, and international level, educators in a host of academic disciplines gather in classes, seminars, colloquia, and conferences. One might ask why such events are a hallmark of academia. While a variety of responses come to mind, two stand out--1) the desire to share with others of like interests the results of individual and group efforts to improve teaching and enhance learning, and 2) the on-going need to improve one's own performance in the application of the discipline to a classroom environment. The theme of the 1991 joint SCOLT/FLANC Conference, held at Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, embraces these two concepts...How are we as second language professionals "Making a World of Difference?"

During SCOLT's lifetime (now a little over one-quarter century), numerous educational bandwagons have come and gone. While we, too, have latched on to a respectable share of educational fads, the proficiency movement has survived the test of a decade of research, amplification, and implementation, and now serves as the organizing principle for L2 instruction. As the preeminent principle in our discipline for these years, proficiency-based instruction has enabled FL teachers to become uniquely qualified to provide students with the opportunity to access both linguistic competence and cultural literacy. In today's fast-changing, globally-interdependent world, we have much to offer both today's students and our colleagues in other disciplines.

The sessions at this conference were evidence of this vision. They offered insights to enhance opportunities for learning and included applications of current educational trends such as cooperative learning, writing skills acquisition across the curriculum, strategies to accommodate a variety of learning styles, outcome assessment, and proficiency testing.

While the articles in this volume represent the conference, they also stand as written testimony to a variety of ways in which FL educators continue to "make a world of difference."

Rosalie M. Cheatham
Conference Chair, 1991

Introduction

This 1991 volume of *Dimension: Languages '91* contains ten articles selected from among the numerous presentations at the joint SCOLT/FLANC (Foreign Language Association of North Carolina) meeting.

The state of North Carolina is in the forefront of state-mandated foreign language education in the elementary schools (FLES). Logically then, many presentations at the 1991 joint meeting focused on FLES. As a result, four of the ten articles in this volume address various implementations of this particular aspect of foreign language education.

In their article, "Infusing Critical and Creative Thinking Skills into the Foreign Language Classroom," Frances S. Hoch and Timothy Hart discuss the strong role that the teaching of thinking skills currently plays in the *North Carolina Standard Course of Study* and should play in all foreign language classrooms. They point out that second language study for children is an excellent vehicle for allowing children to expand and utilize those functions that are universally accepted as thinking skills. Hoch and Hart also focus on the inclusion of the higher order thinking skills of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation at the elementary school level, cautioning that they be developmentally appropriate for students at that level. They then discuss including such thinking skills at the secondary level. Using a wide variety of activities that call on higher order thinking skills, teachers can play an important role in helping young people learn how to think critically, creatively, and effectively.

Audrey Heining-Boynton, in "Reinforcing the Elementary School Curriculum with Content-Based FLES," addresses an important possible focus of FLES: content-based instruction, teaching a foreign language via other content areas such as mathematics, science, health, or social studies. Such instruction helps students use the foreign language vocabulary in meaningful contexts. In addition, content-based instruction reinforces the links among the various disciplines in the curriculum and encourages the use of higher order thinking skills. This format also presents a strong defense for the inclusion of foreign languages in the elementary school curriculum.

Alline B. Riddick gives a convincing argument for including children of varied socio-economic backgrounds and ability levels in partial immersion FLES programs instead of limiting participation to a select group of pupils. Her study, "A Comparison of Student Performance in Partial-immersion and FLES Programs," also compares the partial-immersion pupils with those receiving instruction in a more traditional FLES program. With the surprising results from a statistical analysis of performance of partial-immersion students on a variety of tests, Riddick concludes that students from all socio-economic levels can learn a second language and that they outperform traditional FLES pupils in second language ability. The half-day delivery of instruction through a second language did not retard the learning of math, science, or English.

Another aspect of second language study that is readily applicable to both FLES programs as well as to programs at the secondary and university levels is culture. Samia Serageldin's article, "Teaching About Holidays as an Aspect of Culture," presents a discussion of selected French holidays and a variety of activities that can be adapted for any level of study, although the primary focus of this article is FLES instruction. As she so aptly concludes, "...learning to recognize the similarities and celebrate the differences in other cultures, future generations will truly be able to say: '*Vive la différence*!'"

Another article that gives exciting cultural insights is "Celebrating 1992: Rediscovering Our Indigenous and Hispanic Heritages," by Joann McFerran Mount. In this year of the Spanish quincentennial, Mount provides information about little-known hispanic and Native American influences in the southeastern United States. She also gives an invaluable list of suggested readings and resources, including slides, videocassettes, museums, libraries, special exhibits, conferences, programs, and collections relevant to this topic.

Two articles in this volume address student motivation and foreign language learning. In "Using Student Feedback to Reinforce Learning: Process and Progress," Carolyn L. Hansen suggests that learners who participate in identifying areas in which they feel a need for review and who have their suggestions incorporated into the class activities on a regular basis as part of the language learning process may feel less anxious and more confident as they prepare for the terminal examination. Hansen offers suggestions about ways that teachers can let their students assume greater responsibility in their own language development.

Randall L. Alford's article, "Student Attitudes about the Study of Foreign Languages: Report of a Survey," discusses the role that motivation and student input in the instructional process play in determining success in the foreign language classroom. His analysis of results from "The Foreign Language Attitude Survey," developed by the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, yields a profile of student attitudes toward the study of foreign language. Although the results of this particular study should not be generalized, teachers can be encouraged to administer similar attitude surveys to their own students and thereby foster more effective language learning strategies.

The final three articles in this volume address teaching strategies and techniques that can enhance foreign language learning. E.-Anette Koeppel discusses technology through the use of "Video in the Foreign Language Classroom: Using Commercials." Although her examples are in German, the principles are applicable in any language. She provides a detailed outline that illustrates several ways an instructor might make use of commercials in order to practice in different areas: listening comprehension, oral work, vocabulary building, and written work.

In "Developing Proficiency-based Game Approaches," John I. Liontas discusses the productive role that games can play in the foreign language classroom. Liontas states that, in order for games to be effective learning activities, they should be interactive and student-developed, when possible. He provides guidelines for selecting, developing, and playing games suited for different levels of study and for different goals.

Virginia M. Scott's article, "Write from the Start: A Task-oriented Developmental Writing Program for Foreign Language Students," focuses particularly on developing writing skills. She concentrates on the writing process rather than the final product. Her task-oriented activities provide guided direction in writing, allowing for much student creativity. Although these task-oriented activities are designed for use with the computer software *Système-D*, they can be used quite effectively without computers. "When students write from the start with task-oriented guidelines, they will understand the connection between form and content, between meaning and ideas, and they will become better foreign language writers."

The authors of these articles prove that quality foreign language education, innovation, and the concern for active student involvement and positive motivation can indeed "make a world of difference."

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The Southern Conference on Language Teaching is most appreciative of the support of Valdosta State College (GA) and to C. Lee Bradley for the preparation for printing and for formatting camera-ready copy of the final manuscript of *Dimension '91*. Without their invaluable help, this volume would not have been realized.

The Editor would like to recognize the highly capable and efficient Editorial Board for their careful and thoughtful evaluation of the manuscripts and for their insightful comments that helped guide the authors in the preparation of their work.

A special note of gratitude goes to Mrs. Kerran V. Kempton, Secretary, Department of Modern Foreign Languages and Literatures, for her tireless work in retyping all of the manuscripts and for preparing the finished versions of the articles from which this volume was prepared.

Mr. William P. Simpson, a senior at the University of Richmond, worked with the Editor as an intern in all stages of the preparation of this volume. Bill's work, his critical eye for detail, his care and concern for correctness, and his efficiency are deeply appreciated, for without him, *Dimension '91* would have been much longer in appearing.

Robert M. Terry
Editor

1

Write From the Start: A Task-oriented Developmental Writing Program for Foreign Language Students

Virginia M. Scott
Vanderbilt University

Writing in foreign language study serves two basic purposes: to manipulate and learn linguistic structures and to express personal meaning. Traditionally, the elementary level of language study is devoted to the first purpose, namely writing to learn grammar. Students at this stage of language learning are assigned written work which encourages linguistic practice, generally only at the sentence level. The second purpose, that of writing to communicate, is often left for students at the intermediate or more advanced levels of language study. The underlying assumption is that students can only express personal meaning in a foreign language when they have mastered the basic linguistic structures that make communication possible.

While both writing to learn and writing to communicate are valid goals for foreign language study, they should be integrated from the earliest stages of language learning. In order to achieve that goal, teachers must design writing guidelines which help students to combine the two purposes for writing. Students who are taught to write from the start become better foreign language writers.

The thesis that writing from the start makes better foreign language writers is founded on the following four hypotheses:

1. Writing competence is a general notion which does not refer to any specific language.

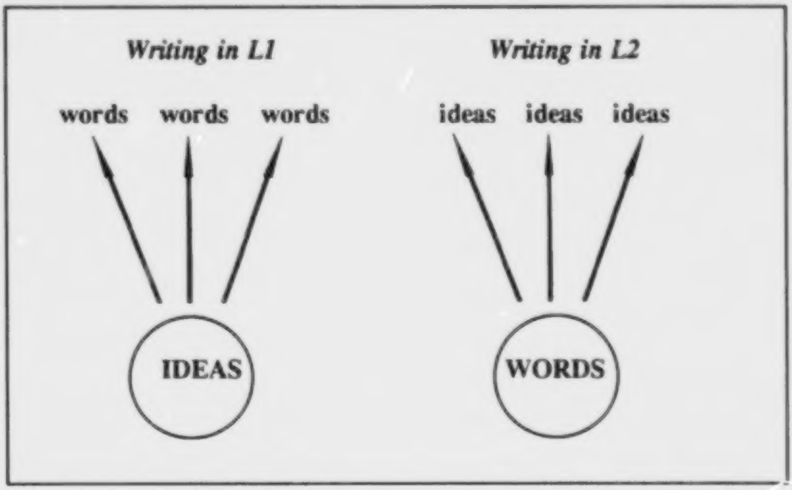
The notion of writing competence is difficult to define since it involves a value judgement--no two readers would have the same definition of good or competent writing. In his book *Writing: Research, Theory, and Applications*, Krashen defines writing competence as the abstract knowledge a proficient writer has about writing. He suggests (20) that writing competence is developed when the writer gets comprehensible input through "self-motivated reading for interest and/or pleasure." While it is possible that a relationship between reading and writing competence in a foreign language exists, research suggests that there are many other factors involved.[1] Yet, even without a consensus about exactly what characterizes good writing, it is possible to postulate that writing competence is a general term which is not language specific. A student who demonstrates good writing strategies in the native language will be likely to carry those strategies over to writing in a foreign language. Teachers can assess students' writing competence by assigning a native language writing task at the beginning of foreign language study and in this way differentiate between writing problems due to writing competence and those due to foreign language competence.

2. Writing in a foreign language is not the same as writing in the native language.

When students are assigned a writing task in their native language, they typically develop an idea about what to say, and then they try to express that idea in language. Similarly, with a foreign language writing assignment, students think that they can come up with ideas and then transfer, or translate, those ideas directly into the foreign language. This problem is particularly evident in elementary and intermediate level language classes. As most foreign language teachers know, when students attempt to express a sophisticated idea with limited language, the result is often incomprehensible.

In order to address this problem, teachers need to point out that writing in the foreign language is a subtly different process from writing in the native language. Using a simple illustration, such as the one shown in Figure 1, teachers can explain the difference between L1 and L2 writing. In L1 writing, students can allow their ideas to precede their choice of words. For example, if students were to write an essay in L1 on the value of foreign language study, they might be encouraged to organize their ideas before writing. The choice of words to explain and clarify their ideas

Figure 1.



would occur during the writing process. In L2 writing, students should learn to allow familiar words and expressions to generate their ideas. In an essay in L2 about the value of foreign language study, students should be guided to list and organize specific words and expressions that come to mind about the topic and then let those words shape their ideas. The link between words and ideas would occur during the writing process. Ultimately, L2 writing tasks must be carefully designed so that they teach students to avoid dictionary dependence by encouraging them to "play" with words and structures. This change in focus will lead them to build ideas with words rather than to put words around ideas.

3. Practice does not necessarily make perfect.

Elementary level foreign language students who are encouraged to express meaning in writing have a "head start" on students who are not assigned compositions until later in their language study. While the length of time spent writing and the frequency of writing practice are important, the type of writing tasks assigned are essential to the development of good foreign language writing. Practice in writing will serve little purpose without organized and systematic guidance. When students are given specific writing tasks they are able to write comprehensible, meaningful compositions on the first try.

4. Correction and feedback are only one aspect of teaching writing.

When teachers assign compositions they generally assume that the majority of their work will involve correcting students' errors. However, "the teaching of writing is not synonymous with error elimination" (Jarausch and Tufts, 71). Moreover, research suggests that correcting surface errors rarely helps students improve their writing competence. A recent study by Kepner indicates that the nature of the feedback a student receives on written work can determine the quality of the writing. Students who were given message-related comments on their written work performed better in terms of both the quality of their ideas and surface-level accuracy than students who were given error corrections combined with explicit rule reminders (310).

While error correction and feedback on both form and content are important, they function only as a follow-up to the composition assignment. Explicit direction must precede the actual composition writing. Students will be more likely to perform better on writing tasks if the purpose, the situation or context, and the specific linguistic requirements are clearly defined. Contrary to what one might expect, students working within a strict set of guidelines feel secure rather than limited in expressing their ideas.[2]

Creating Task-oriented Writing Guidelines

Task-oriented writing guidelines were originally designed by Scott (1990) to be used with *Système-D*, the French writing software program authored by Noblitt, Solá and Pet. However, the use of these guidelines is not limited to this software. In fact, when students are not using software such as *Système-D*, and therefore do not have ready access to grammar, vocabulary and idiomatic phrase information, writing guidelines may be even more helpful.

The essential characteristic of good task-oriented writing guidelines is that they reinforce material with which students are familiar. Students should write about topics and use linguistic structures that they have already studied formally. For example, if students of French are given a writing assignment that requires them to use the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*, these tenses should have been previously taught and tested. In other words, students should not be required to learn as well as to use a linguistic structure in a writing assignment. In *Teaching Writing in the*

Foreign Language Curriculum, Gaudiani states that "as students begin to write a great deal, they often sense gaps in their knowledge of grammar" (33). It follows logically that since students will inevitably encounter gaps in their knowledge of grammar while trying to express meaning in writing, teachers should not compound the challenge by giving a writing assignment that demands the use of new structures.

After verifying that a composition topic reinforces structures that have already been studied, teachers can follow these steps for writing their own task-oriented guidelines:

1. A **situation**, or context, should describe the function and the purpose of the writing exercise. It is essential that the situation be relevant and meaningful for the students. The situation should be written in general terms and therefore be easily adaptable to students at any stage of writing ability.
2. Several **tasks** should follow, each describing explicitly the steps students must take to achieve the purpose of the assignment. The nature and complexity of the tasks will establish the difficulty level of the writing assignment.
3. For each task, there should be a specific directive to students to find the **functional, lexical** and/or **grammatical** information necessary to carry out the task.

Figure 2 shows a sample task-oriented writing guideline for high school and college students at about the second year of language study.

As students are first learning to write using the guidelines, teachers should discuss good writing strategies such as planning, rescanning and revising (Omaggio, 224-25). When students are at the planning, or brainstorming, phase of the writing process, they should follow the guidelines closely, noting the idiomatic phrases that they have learned, making lists of vocabulary to be used, and marking the pages in the textbook where the required grammatical information can be found. This can be a good pre-writing class activity. Finally, it is important for teachers to point out that the tasks will help with the overall organization of the composition; however, students must organize the elements and ideas within each paragraph.

Figure 2.

Sample Task-Oriented Writing Guideline

Situation: You are writing a description of yourself for a catalogue of pen pans. Later you will read other students' descriptions and choose a pen pal to whom you will write letters.

Tasks:

1. Give your name and age.
   FUNCTION: introducicing yourself
2. Describe yourself physically.
   FUNCTION: describing yourself
   VOCABULARY: body parts, eye colors, hair colors
   GRAMMAR: adjectives, adjective agreement, adjective placement
3. Describe your personality.
   GRAMMAR: adjectives
4. Indicate your areas of interest.
   FUNCTION: talking about likes and dislikes
   VOCABULARY: studies, sports, leisure activities
5. Conclude with a statement explaining how you feel about studying this foreign language.
   FUNCTION: expressing an opinion

Developmental Writing Program

A developmental foreign language writing program should be designed to teach students to write, progressing from simple to more complex tasks. When using the task-oriented writing guidelines, a writing assignment is no more difficult than the requirements indicated in each of the tasks. While the situation can remain the same for students at any stage of writing ability, the tasks can be modified depending on the level of the students. Furthermore, students at all stages of writing ability should be given the opportunity to do different types of writing. Schultz (980) cites four types of writing as described by Alexander Bain over one hundred years ago: description, narration, exposition, and argumentation. According to Schultz these types of writing, especially argumentation, require different uses of language as well as different levels of cognitive processing. Schultz argues that advanced level language students frequently show evidence of problems with writing and accuracy because they are required to write argumentative essays when they have only learned how to write in the descriptive, narrative, and expository modes. In light of this argument, it is clear that students need to learn explicitly how to write in different language modes. The following example of task-oriented writing guidelines illustrates how a developmental writing program can be implemented to teach writing skills which involve increasingly complex language and thought.

> **Situation**: You have heard that American and French students are different. In order to promote cultural understanding, you are writing an article for a French magazine about American students.
>
> ***First-year tasks:***
> 1. Begin with a general remark about American students.
>   *FUNCTION*: generalizing
> 2. Describe the way a typical female student looks.
>   *FUNCTION*: describing people
>   *VOCABULARY*: hair styles, clothing
> 3. Describe the way a typical male student looks.
> 4. Indicate three things that American students like to do.
>   *FUNCTION*: expressing likes
>   *VOCABULARY*: leisure activities
> 5. Conclude with a personal opinion about American students.
>   *FUNCTION*: expressing an opinion
>
> ***Second-year tasks:***
> 1. Begin with a general remark about American students.
>   *FUNCTION*: generalizing; linking ideas
> 2. Describe the way typical students, both male and female, look.
>   *FUNCTION*: describing people
>   *VOCABULARY*: hair styles, clothing
>   *GRAMMAR*: adjectives, adjective agreement/placement
> 3. Indicate things that American students like to do.
>   *VOCABULARY*: studies, leisure activities
>   *GRAMMAR*: adverbs of time
> 4. Indicate things that American students do not like to do.
>   *GRAMMAR*: negations

5. Conclude with several personal opinions about the individuality or conformity of American students.
   FUNCTION: expressing an opinion

Third-year tasks:

1. You will argue either for or against the idea that all American students are alike. Begin with a thesis statement.
   FUNCTION: essay writing; linking ideas
2. Describe American students.
   FUNCTION: describing people
   VOCABULARY: hair styles, clothing, studies, leisure
3. Define and discuss the concept of stereotypes.
   FUNCTION: expressing pros and cons; weighing alternatives
   GRAMMAR: impersonal expressions
   (EX: it is interesting/evident/important)
4. Conclude by showing how the argument supports the thesis statement.

Initially it may appear to teachers and students that task-oriented guided writing assignments are too detailed to allow for student creativity. However, the overall organization in the guidelines enables students to focus both on the language/expression aspect of the writing assignment and on personalizing their message. Furthermore, the guidelines encourage students to use the functions, words and structures that they know, thus discouraging the use of translation as they express their ideas. (See Appendix for samples of student compositions written with task-oriented guidelines and *Système-D* software.)

As teachers design a developmental writing program, it is important to keep the entire language program in mind. Students will most likely benefit from this learning experience if they encounter similar composition situations, or topics, several times over the course of their language study, each time with tasks that require more sophisticated language functions and structures. The four types of writing previously discussed, description, narration, exposition and argumentation, can become the basis for a complete writing program. Students at all levels of language study can work on each of these language functions with similar situations but with tasks assigned according to language ability. Figures 3, 4, 5, and 6 sketch out a three-year developmental writing program, giving general task suggestions without specific reference to functions, vocabulary and grammar.

Figure 3.

DESCRIPTION

Situation: You have been asked to write a description of yourself for the new student files.

First Year Tasks	Second Year Tasks	Third Year Tasks
1. Give name, age, nationality.	1. Give name, age, nationality.	1. Give name, age, nationality.
2. Describe yourself physically.	2. Describe your appearance and personality.	2. Describe yourself in detail.
3. Tell three things you like and three things you don't like to do.	3. Tell at least five things you like and five things you do not like about your academic and leisure activities.	3. Indicate your likes and dislikes.
		4. Tell what you will do after finishing school.

Figure 4.

NARRATION

Situation: Imagine that you went on a trip to ___ last year. You are writing to a pen pal telling about the event.

First Year Tasks	Second Year Tasks	Third Year Tasks
1. Tell where you you went.	1. Tell where you went and how you felt.	1. Tell where you went and why.
2. Tell three things you did.	2. Tell what happened and how you felt.	2. Tell what happened, whom you were with and how you felt.
3. Tell three things you did not do.	3. Tell what you will do on your next visit.	3. Tell what you would have done if you had had more money.

Figure 5.

EXPOSITION

Situation: Read the following poem (short story, article) and write a short paper.

First Year Tasks	Second Year Tasks	Third Year Tasks
1. Write a sentence summarizing the main idea.	1. Write 2 sentences summarizing the main idea.	1. Summarize the main idea.
2. Write three reasons why you think this is the main idea.	2. Discuss the specific aspects of the text that you like/do not like.	2. Explain specifically how the author communicates the message.
3. Conclude with a personal opinion about the text.	3. Conclude with a personal opinion about the text and explain your opinion.	3. Discuss the specific language and imagery in the text.
		4. Conclude with an evaluation of the text.

The four types of writing in Figures 3, 4, 5, and 6 are generic and can be adapted to many different modes of expression such as letters, news articles, advertisements, etc. In addition, changes in tense and point of view can create variety in the writing assignment: **description** can be written in the past, present or future; **narration** is generally in the past, but can be written in first or third person; **exposition**, a setting forth of meaning or intent, is particularly appropriate for text analyses and can be written in the past, present, or future; **argumentation** is generally in the present, but can require other tenses to support the argument.

Conclusion

The task-oriented writing guidelines and the developmental writing program proposed in this article allow students not only to "write from the start" but also to become involved in the process of writing to learn. Zinsser's book *Writing to Learn* states that writing across the curriculum

Figure 6.

ARGUMENTATION

Situation: Write an article arguing for or against the following statement: Americans are obsessed with physical exercise.

First Year Tasks	Second Year Tasks	Third Year Tasks
1. Introduce the subject.	1. Introduce the subject and state your opinion.	1. Introduce the subject, state your opinion, and explain why you believe this.
2. State your opinion.	2. Support your opinion with three facts.	2. Support your opinion by citing facts.
3. Explain why you believe this.	3. Suggest why Americans are (not) this way.	3. Suggest why Americans are (not) this this way and give another informed opinion (i.e., a coach, a doctor).
4. Conclude with a restatement of the subject.	4. Conclude by showing how your argument proves your point.	4. Give an opposing view.
		5. Conclude with persuasive statements which prove your point.

"wasn't just a method of getting students to write who were afraid of writing. It was also a method of getting students to learn who were afraid of learning" (ix). For Zinsser, an important key to learning is being able to use writing as an exercise in clear thinking about a given subject. However, unlike students in other disciplines, foreign language students cannot write about language the way history students can write about history or math students can write about math. Writing in a foreign language is unique in that content is often an artificial construct, with form being the real focus.

If we postulate that "writing to learn" in a foreign language implicitly involves learning about form rather than content, we are saying that writing to learn is different from writing to communicate.[3] Yet, as foreign language teachers, we are generally committed to the notion that students must do relevant, meaningful, communicative tasks in order to develop overall writing proficiency. Therefore, these two aspects of foreign language writing must be integrated. Teachers must provide writing guidelines which direct students explicitly, from the beginning stages of their language study, to operate within a communicative framework while working on form. When students write from the start with task-oriented guidelines, they will understand the connection between form and content, between meaning and ideas, and they will become better foreign language writers.[4]

Notes

1. See Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll and Kuehn's article entitled "Reading-Writing Relationships in First and Second Language" (*TESOL Quarterly* 24 (1990): 245-266) and Eisterhold's article entitled "Reading-Writing Connections: Toward a Description for Second Language Learners" (Ed. B. Kroll, *Second Language Writing: Research Insights for the Classroom*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990: 109-125) for research on the relationship between reading and writing competence.

2. In 1989 and 1990 surveys were conducted in elementary, intermediate and advanced level language courses at Vanderbilt University where task-oriented writing guidelines were used systematically with *Système-D*. Approximately 240 students responded with about 90% in favor of having a clear framework for writing assignments. Some of the student comments can be found in *Teacher's Guide: Système-D Writing Assistant for French* by Scott and Terry (Heinle & Heinle, 1991).

3. In *Computer-Assisted Instruction in Composition* (National Council of Teachers of English, 1986), Selfe states that "writing to learn is fundamentally different from writing to communicate" (p.8).

4. I would like to express sincere thanks to the Tennessee Foreign Language Institute for funding of the "Write from the Start" project at Martin Luther King Magnet High School in Nashville. Thanks also to J. Elizabeth New, whose critical reading of my work keeps me right from the start.

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Appendix

Writing Samples From High School Students Using Task-oriented Writing Exercises With *Système-D*

Situation: You are describing yourself to a new French pen pal.

Tasks:

1. Introduce yourself.
2. Describe yourself physically.
   PHRASES: Describing people
   VOCABULARY: Body, Hair colors; Face
3. Describe your personality, saying two things that you are and two things that you are not.
   VOCABULARY: Personality
   GRAMMAR: Negations with *ne ... pas*

French 1

(One sitting: 30 minutes)

Bonjour, Je m'appelle d'Artagnan. Je suis une femme americainne. J'ai 14 ans et j'habite à Nashville. J'adore lire et je parle toujours. J'ai les cheveux brune. Les yeux sont verte. Je n'ai pas dépendant. Je n'ai pas malhonnête. J'ai très actif. Je n'amie plus jouer au basket.

French 2

(First sitting: 20 minutes)

Salut! Je m'appelle Manon Cadoret. J'ai cinze ans. J'habite à Nashville. Je suis grande et blonde. On dit que je suis jolie et intelligente. J'aime jouer aux sports. J'aime les animaux. Aussi, je ne mange pas le viande. Je joue du piano. Je n'aime pas les guerres. J'aime faire les promenades.

(Second sitting: 10 minutes)

Je ne suis pas française; je suis américaine. J'ai raison tous les temps. Je n'ai pas de la chance. Je ne suis pas prématuré. Je n'aime pas faire le lit. J'aime faire la cuisine, mais je n'aime pas faire les vaisselles. Aussi, j'aime apprendre. J'espère que vous m'aimez. à tout à l'heure.

French 3

(First sitting: 25 mintues)

Je m'appelle Gabrielle Cardin. J'ai 15 ans. Je suis très sympathique. J'aime jouer au softball. J'aime jouer du piano aussi. Je suis intelligente. J'aime les surprise-parties. Je n'a pas un petit ami maintenant, mais je cherche un homme.

(Second sitting: 30 minutes)

Attendez une minute! J'ai trouvé un homme. Pendant la vacances Pâques, je suis sorti avec Chris Smith. Il est très sympathique. Nous sommes allés voir au cinéma Career Opportunities. C'était un film tellement excellent. J'ai eu un bon temps avec lui. Il est trés beau. Il assiste le lycée Martin Luther King. J'ai été tellement contente depuis qu'il m'a dit qu'il pense qu'il tombe en amour avec moi. C'était une vacances tres chouette!

(Third sitting: 30 minutes)

Ce weekend dernier, je suis sortie avec Chris. Il avait donné son anneau aussi. Il avait mon petit ami. Il m'a donné une surprise le vendredi dernier. Il m'a emmené au restaurant japonais. C'était très romantique. J'étais tellement contente. Nous avons parlé après le dîner. Nous avons été honnête avec nous-mêmes. Le dimanche denier, il a brisé mon coeur. C'est possible que allerions sortir encore, mais je ne veux pas avoir mal. J'espère que Chris et moi sortent encore.

Je sais maintenant que quiconque lis ça est très fatigué avec ce sujet. N'est-ce pas? Tiens! Je allerai maintenant. Je suis fatiguée de Chris aussi! Au revoir pour maintenant.

2

Using Student Feedback to Reinforce Learning: Process and Progress

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Introduction

As more and more institutions move toward a proficiency-based foreign language requirement, the need for student-centered practice and review prior to the final measure of performance becomes increasingly important. This need is especially apparent when the students involved find themselves in the second semester of a college-level language course with classmates of varying abilities and diverse backgrounds in the foreign language. A majority of courses at this level tend to review materials covered in the first semester, while at the same time introducing new concepts.

Students whose initial instruction may have focused on the features of the language in isolation (e.g., grammar rules, vocabulary lists, pronunciation) and who have had little or no practice in using the language for meaningful communication often have difficulty adjusting to a classroom where the language being taught is also the medium of instruction. Similarly, students coming from a communicatively-oriented classroom where grammatical terminology has not been used may be unable to fit into a class where they are expected to be familiar with grammatical terminology and linguistic nomenclature. Both types of students benefit greatly from carefully structured review sessions during which they can begin to strengthen their areas of weakness.

In the case of multiple section courses with a departmental syllabus, there may or may not be time built into the syllabus for regular review sessions. When time is allotted, the course director or the individual instructor usually dictates what the students "need" to review (Horwitz, 27). However, students who are given the opportunity to have input into the way the course materials and recaps/reviews are handled are much more likely to experience increased interest in the course and its objectives, and to become responsible for a portion of their own learning and language development. One way to provide an opportunity for students to have direct input into the content and focus of review lessons, in the hope of lessening the anxiety of all involved, is described below.

Procedure

Solicitation of data

As teachers of foreign language, we have no difficulty identifying the major problem areas, at least grammatically, that we feel need to be reviewed constantly so that our students can become more proficient users of the language. The need to overtly recap or review materials is due in great part to the efficacy of the materials being used in the course itself. Materials geared toward a linear presentation of items to be covered with a view toward mastery will tend to lack the continual re-entry incorporated by those foreign language texts and supplementary materials aimed toward the development of functional proficiency.

There are several ways in which to elicit student input regarding those areas in which the students feel a need for review/recap. In a grammar-driven syllabus, the instructor of the course may provide a listing of the grammatical points covered during the first term or semester. The students then rank the items according to their perception of what needs to be reviewed, and the review sessions geared toward those items receiving the most votes follow. Items mentioned a minimal number of time can be handled on a need-to-know basis with the individuals involved. When the course syllabus is based on communicative functions, a similar listing can be made by the instructor, with the students then ranking those areas in which they feel the need for expanded practice. A third alternative, and the one which places complete control of the list in the hands of the students, is to have the students list both grammar points and functions where they feel a need for review, thereby producing what might be termed non-directed results.

In a recent survey conducted at the University of South Carolina, students of French, German, and Spanish in the second semester were asked to list the top five areas where they felt a need for review/recap activities. The responses were open-ended. Tables 1-3 present the results of the survey by language group.

Table 1.

Topics Students Perceive as Needing Further Review
French Respondents
N = 35

Topic	**Percentage**
Futur/Futur Proche	51.2
Past Tenses	42.4
Indirect/Direct Object Pronouns	39.4
Irregular Verbs	36.4
General Verb Forms	27.3
Reflexive Structures	27.3
Conditional Tenses	24.2
Asking/Giving Directions	12.1
General Vocabulary	12.1
Conversation Practice	12.1
Listening Practice	12.1
Article Usage	9.0
Agreement	9.0
Weather	9.0
Question Formation	9.0
Restaurant/Food Vocabulary	9.0
Prepositions	6.0
Dictation Practice	6.0
Writing Practice	6.0
Telling Time	6.0
"*Si*" Clauses	3.0
Etre	3.0
Imperative	3.0
Avoir idioms	3.0
Expressions of Quantity	3.0
C'est vs. Il est	3.0
Adjectives	3.0
Possessives	3.0

Table 1, continued.

Topic	Percentage
Adjective Placement	3.0
Demonstrative Adjectives	3.0
Spelling/Accents	3.0
Clothing Vocabulary	3.0
Medical Vocabulary	3.0
Body Parts	3.0
Speaking/Accent	3.0

Table 2.

Topics Students Perceive as Needing Further Review
German Respondents
N = 35

Topic	Percentage
Adjective Endings	42.9
Dative	31.4
Genitive	25.7
Accusative	22.9
Verbs	14.3
Word Order	14.3
Vocabulary	11.4
Tenses	11.4
Pronouns	11.4
Speaking	2.9
Spelling	2.9
Strong/weak Verbs	2.9
Future	2.9
History	2.9
Money	2.9
Listening	2.9
Conversational Vocabulary	2.9
Restaurant Vocabulary	2.9
Travel Vocabulary	2.9
Shopping	2.9
Food	2.9
Subordinating Conjunctions	2.9
Past Tense	2.9
Future Perfect Tense	2.9

Table 3.

Topics Students Perceive as Needing Further Review
Spanish Respondents
N = 100

Topic	Percentage
Subjunctive	57.0
Indirect/Direct Object Pronouns	33.0
Present Perfect	22.0
Reflexive Verbs	17.0
Listening Practice	16.0
Stem-Changing Verbs	12.0
General Vocabulary Building	12.0
Command Forms (not covered)	11.0
Preterite/Imperfect (not covered)	11.0
General Verb Conjugation	11.0
Syntax (word order)	11.0
Restaurant Vocabulary	11.0
Directions/locating Objects	9.0
Conocer/Saber	7.0
Irregular Verbs	7.0
Travel Vocabulary	5.0
Speaking and Pronunciation Practice	5.0
Ser/Estar	4.0
Hotel Vocabulary	4.0
Present Progressive	4.0
Writing Practice and Spelling Practice	3.0
Conditional Tense (not covered)	3.0
Accent Usage	2.0
Store Vocabulary and Furniture Vocabulary	2.0
Comparisons	2.0
Seasons and Weather	1.0
Clothing Vocabulary	1.0
Telephone Usage	1.0
Future Tense (not covered)	1.0
Geography	1.0
Past Perfect Tense	1.0
Numbers and Telling Time	1.0
Gustar-type Verbs	1.0
Possessive Adjectives	1.0
Everything	1.0

It is interesting to note that some students had difficulty expressing exactly what they wanted to review. While some students mentioned grammar, others identified lexical categories, and still others were concerned about functions. One German student wanted to review "strong and weak nouns," while another wanted to review "peace, love and war." A Spanish student wanted to review "everything," and a young lady in French stated that "I sound like a farm girl from Georgia. I'd love to actually sound like a French-speaking native." In several instances, students expressed a desire to review items that had to been covered in the first term, indicating that their language study prior to university enrollment had produced some lingering questions that were still a source of anxiety. These incidents can be explained given the variety of backgrounds inherent in the student sample at this level. In some cases (e.g., the use of indirect/direct object pronouns), the students' preoccupation with the topic seemed to outweigh the value placed on the specific item in relation to its importance as far as communication at this level is concerned. That is to say, the students could not handle the pronouns, so they felt unable to communicate effectively. In still other cases (e.g., the use of *ser/estar* in Spanish), items that Spanish teachers consistently expect to review, appeared very low on the students' perceived list of weaknesses.

If one assumes that the ability to communicate motivates at least some language students, then the question of accuracy of performance must be addressed. Typically, students have one idea of what they need to know while teachers have another, and native speakers sometimes have a completely different perception of what is needed. Studies by several authors (Chastain, Galloway, Guntermann, Ludwig, Politzer) have shown that mastery of certain specific items may actually have little effect on adequate communication with native speakers, although the attitude of the native toward various errors may be subjective and tends to vary by language. Chastain (214) mentions the frustration of native speakers of Spanish when confronted with errors in the use of a present participle instead of an infinitive after a preposition. Galloway (455) suggests that more time be spent on those points that seem to be potential disrupters of communication (e.g., *ser/estar* and imperfect/preterit). Politzer's study (257) ranked errors in vocabulary as the most unacceptable to the native speakers of German, with errors in case endings appearing in sixth place. At the same time, Ensz (138) notes that the "emphasis on correct production of the foreign language, and especially grammatical correctness, is not incompatible with the encouragement of the spontaneous communication of ideas in the foreign language." She states that the native French people in her sample expressed a "significant intolerance for grammatical errors." Guntermann (252) points out that students who really wish to make friends with the native speakers of the language may find that linguistic accuracy is more important than just "getting the message" transmitted. Further study in this area could result in the necessity for the re-evaluation of course goals and objectives, as well as for re-thinking our approaches to the use of feedback in reinforcing learning.

Incorporating Student Feedback

Once the student input has been collected, a strategy for incorporating it during the term needs to be implemented. This incorporation of student feedback must be viewed as part of an overall language learning process, and not as an end in itself. The final measure of student performance will not focus only on those items reviewed but also on the new materials presented during the term. In those programs using proficiency-oriented final examinations, this review procedure provided an opportunity for students to polish their knowledge of the basics and strengthen their overall ability to communicate effectively in the language.

Language teachers have long used the 4x6 card for a variety of practical, quick, reusable in-class activities. Ervin (339) and Sturtridge (129), among others, offer numerous suggestions for the use of 4x6 cards. These cards once again prove their usefulness as review/recap activities transform student input into a series of learner-centered activities. The instructor takes the information gathered and transfers it to 4x6 cards, one topic per card. Each card will contain: 1) the specific topic, be it grammatical, lexical or functional in nature; 2) guidelines or appropriate activities for its review/recap; and 3) any other special instructions. Once the cards are compiled, the instructor needs to have enough copies made for use by several groups or pairs of students at the same time, depending on the topic. If all students are to work on the same topic simultaneously, there need to be enough cards so that each group has a complete set for that activity. Typically, the cards would be organized into packets containing: 1) the topic card with the instructions regarding the point to be covered, the number of students per group, and any special instructions; and 2) the necessary number of supplementary cards for directing/guiding student participation.

These card packets can be used in a variety of ways in the classroom. They may be put into a grab-bag, from which one person in the class removes one packet of cards on which the number of students needed for the activity is indicated, as is the topic to be covered, etc. The students then group themselves accordingly. Depending on the type of activity and the packet content, one person in each group may serve as the "teacher," since that student has the guidelines for the topic and can monitor the extent to which the task is completed. An example of such an activity, for groups of three, in which the topic is grammar-related (present perfect), is present in Figure 1.

Figure 1.

Sample Activity Cards

Present Perfect

Student Card 1: In response to the initial question tell your partner three things that you **have done** today, and at least one thing that you **have not done and need to do.** Allow your partner time to respond to your statements.

Student Card 2: Respond to your partner's statements as they are made with similar things that you **have or have not done, but need to do.**

Student Card 3: (Monitor) Begin the activity with the following question:

¿Que has hecho hoy?

Use the cues provided to make certain your classmates use the correct forms of the present perfect.

Formation: *Haber* plus past participle

he hablado	*hemos escrito*
has dicho	*habéis llegado*
se ha levantado	*han visto*

Irregular participles: *puesto, vuelto cubierto, hecho, roto, abierto*

Support for this approach can be found in the work of Omaggio (207), who argues that "by making students responsible for helping their peers ask accurate questions, the accuracy goal can be fostered in a depressurized atmosphere where communication is also taking place."

Figure 2.

Sample Activity Cards

Restaurant

Student Card 1:
(Waiter)

- Greet and seat customer.
- Describe special (at least three different ingredients).
- Special cannot be changed; convince customer to try it.
- Respond appropriately.

Student Card 2:
(Customer)

- Ask for a table by the window in the non-smoking section.
- Request a menu; ask about the special.
- Express your dislike of one of the items given by the waiter. Ask if you can change it to something else.
- Respond to the waiter in an appropriate manner.

Figure 2 deals with a topic both lexical and functional in nature (Restaurant), and encourages students to stretch themselves linguistically, while Figures 3, 4, and 5 present one method for practicing in a very focused way the problems students tend to have with syntax.

The classroom instructor should allow students to take turns serving as the "teacher" in those activities where a monitor card is provided. Since student learning styles differ greatly (Galloway and LaBarca; Oxford; Oxford et al.), no student should be forced to serve as the group "teacher." Classroom experience tends to show that students enjoy serving in this capacity, and volunteer enthusiastically. During all activities the classroom instructor should circulate, ready to help any student or student "teacher" in need of assistance. The student serving as the "teacher" will have the guidance provided by the monitor card, as well as the easily accessible help of the classroom instructor.

Figure 3.

Sample Activity Cards
French

Syntax/Word Order

Packets of sentence scramble cards are given to groups of students who unscramble them as quickly as possible. The first group done wins.

Card 1:	*quelle/ arrivés/ À/ heure/ sont-ils*
Card 2:	*est/ les/ jolie/ yeux/ Elle/ avec/ très/ bruns*
Card 3:	*est-ce/ pas/ Quels/ nous/ classe/ de/ jours/ que/ n'avons*
Card 4:	*notes/ sont/ que/ mon/ de/ notes/ frère/ meilleures/ les/ Mes*
Card 5:	*n'ai/ deux/ Je/ soeurs/ que*
Card 6.	*mois/ Nous/ depuis/ ici/ sommes/ six*

After the students have spent five to six minutes on the task, the instructor should spend a few minutes in a whole-class activity where information can be shared either by the monitors or in a brainstorming activity. Questions about what students were able to do, as well as what they were not able to do, can help promote the sense of accomplishment attendant to activities of this type. Similarly, it can sensitize students (and teachers) to other useful vocabulary, structures, and functions for future study.

Figure 4.

Sample Activity Cards
German

Syntax/Word order

Packets of sentence scramble cards are given to groups of students who unscramble them as quickly as possible. The first group done wins.

Card 1: *Mitternacht/ studiere/ sechs/ Ich/ abends/ von/ Uhr/ bis*
Card 2: *sind/ durch/ sie/ gekommen/ gut/ Winter/ den*
Card 3: *Hause/ hat/ müssen/ Er/ bleiben/ zu*
Card 4: *Mal/ zum/ schwimmen/ geht/ ersten/ Sie*
Card 5: *hat/ sechs/ Er/ studiert/ schon/ Semester*
Card 6: *wohne/ drei/ hier/ seit/ Ich/ Jahren*

Figure 5.

Sample Activity Cards
Spanish

Syntax/Word order

Packets of sentence scramble cards are given to groups of students who unscramble them as quickly as possible. The first group done wins.

Card 1: *se/ de/ ¿A/ es/ qué/ español/ hora/ clase*
Card 2: *es/ favoritos/ de/ El/ colores/ uno/ verde/ mis*
Card 3: *de/ laboratorio/ ¿Qué/ al/ la/ Ud./ días/ va/ semana*
Card 4: *José/ el/ la/ estudiante/ es/ clase/ peor/ sociología/ de/ de*
Card 5: *María/ le/ nunca/ a/ dice/ nada/ nadie*
Card 6: *meses/ vives/ que/ Hace/ aquí/ dos*

An alternative to small group work is to have a student select a card from the grab-bag and then elicit the basic information on the topic from the whole class. The students provide the basic information while the class leader monitors. The instructor can recap, correct, and expand on the topic once the students have exhausted their own information base. In both situations, the students must participate actively because they are the ones providing the information. They cannot sit quietly and take notes as the instructor runs through a list of rules and examples for their passive absorption.

Other Applications

Although the techniques presented here are geared to the first-year classroom, the concept of student involvement in the development and implementation of classroom review/recap sessions can be easily applied at higher levels.

Conversation courses can benefit from the consistent use of situation grab-bags to review vocabulary and functions as the course progresses. Students themselves can develop sets of cards on specific topics for use by the class, thus further involving themselves in the learning process. As the semester progresses, the collection of topics on which all are able to converse will grow, thus reinforcing the students' sense of confidence in their ability to survive linguistically, a concept noted by Scott (75) who states that "communicative teaching aims to build up sets of language items for a given function, not formal paradigms *per se*."

Intermediate- and advanced-level grammar courses can use the cards for pair or group review of structures suggested by students, as well as for test review and practice. The topics for consideration at these levels would be correspondingly more advanced than those introduced at the first-year level, with increased emphasis on accuracy and style of expression. Students in language-specific methods courses could use topic cards related to instructional strategies or professional issues as a basis for their activities.

Students in culture classes can prepare and provide culture cards similar to the cards for "Jeopardy" and use them to review for exams. Situation cards reflecting a variety of cultural contexts and appropriate interpretations and responses add an extra dimension to group discussion. Famous people, events, and dates can also form the basis of a variety of in-class student-centered activities that focus on content as well as on language usage.

Students in literature courses could help develop questions for exams by providing the professor with the ideas or the information they feel most necessary and useful. Asking students what they feel one should know about a literary selection or what should be on a test can sometimes be surprising, since they may tend to be much more demanding than the teacher. In addition, students' responses provide valuable insights into their stages of development, both cognitive and affective, and can alert the teacher to concepts that may have been missed or misunderstood during the course.

Summary and Conclusion

The very nature and purpose of measuring performance, be it formative or summative, produces considerable anxiety and stress for both teachers and students. The combination of students with different learning styles, and teachers with different teaching styles can produce what Horwitz (25) has termed a "clash of expectations." This conflict generates a problematic atmosphere in the classroom, made even more typing by the necessity to perform. Learners who participate in identifying areas in which they feel a need for review, and who have their suggestions incorporated into the class activities on a regular basis as part of the language learning process, may feel less anxious and more confident as they prepare for the terminal examination. The opportunity to supply knowledge for their peers, as well as the chance to work closely in pairs or groups where they do not feel under pressure helps build confidence in their ability to express themselves adequately in the language.

The suggestions given here are offered in an effort to encourage teachers to let their students assume greater responsibility for their own language development through more active participation in the learning process. The increased sense of accomplishment and the pride the students feel in their ability to perform will carry them successfully beyond the requisite courses and into continued foreign language study.

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3

Infusing Critical and Creative Thinking Skills into the Foreign Language Classroom

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American education has come under attack from many sectors in recent years. Scores on Scholastic Aptitude Tests continue to decline. Among the weaknesses that are cited is the inability of students to solve problems and perform well on complex tasks that require higher order thinking skills. Teachers themselves frequently complain that their students cannot think. Recent curriculum documents include the teaching of thinking skills in their objective. For example, the Introduction to the *North Carolina Standard Course of Study* (9) states:

> In order to become productive, responsible citizens and to achieve a sense of personal fulfillment, students must develop the ability to think. Thinking skills should be developed and reinforced throughout the curriculum and during every activity of the school day. It is also important the students be helped to apply these skills to 'real life' situations outside the school.

Varieties of publications that address the teaching of thinking skills are now available, and many workshops are offered to teachers and administrators at the state and local levels. Some advocate teaching thinking as a separate course or program while others argue for the infusion of teaching for thinking into regular classroom instruction. However, few of these publications or workshops discuss the role of thinking skills specifically in relation to the teaching of foreign languages.

The authors of this article believe that the foreign language class is an excellent vehicle for teaching thinking skills, regardless of grade or language level. Teaching for proficiency involves many tasks that require higher levels of thinking though we may not be aware of it. In addition, many of our classroom activities that involve mainly recall need to be restructures only slightly to include higher order skills.

Thinking Skills and the FLES Class

The development and growth of children occurs in fairly predictable sequences. While no child is truly typical, developmental stages and patterns do suggest optimal times for particular types of learning. Addressing these developmental stages instructionally is critical.

Early childhood is a propitious time to begin second language instruction in order to develop communicative competence. Second language study for children is additionally an excellent vehicle for allowing children to expand and utilize those functions that are universally accepted as thinking skills.

Good second language instruction has always included those skills involved in thinking. Even at the earliest ages, children break information down into parts by observing, identifying, labeling, describing, and defining individual components. Children examine relationships by comparing and contrasting, patterning, sequencing, classifying, and examining causes and effects. They create new relationships when they infer, draw conclusions, predict, hypothesize, synthesize, and transform. They make judgements in the second language when they evaluate and make decisions.

Effective instruction in FLES by its very format integrates thinking skills. While providing students the opportunity to begin developing competence in listening, speaking, reading, and writing in the target language, FLES teachers teach and reinforce many of the other subjects within the elementary curriculum. This content-based instruction provides a natural basis for the infusion of higher order thinking. Not surprisingly, the terminology of the thinking skills movement has been slow to be incorporated into second language methodology and instruction. It is crucial that second language teachers recognize, emphasize, and publicize those thinking strategies they promote in their teaching in order for other educators who have little experience with second language learning to understand the relationship.

While there are numerous taxonomies that can be used to develop strategies for thinking, perhaps the most often quoted is Bloom's taxonomy. Knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation are the prioritized indicators that show increasing complexity of thinking in this scheme. The last three indicators especially lend themselves to higher order thinking strategies for the FLES student. However, it is crucial that those activities which FLES teachers utilize be developmentally appropriate for their students.

Analysis involves the breakdown of material into separate parts, the detection of relationships among the parts, and the ways in which parts are organized. An activity involving FLES students in analysis may be one in which animals are compared and contrasted in the target language according to their physical characteristics or their habitat. Foods could be classifies according to food groups or vegetables according to a particular part of a plant (ex: potato-root, celery-stem, tomato-fruit).

Synthesis deals with the putting together of elements to form a whole. It is a means of ordering and placing parts and relationships to create a greater unity. For FLES students, sequencing, patterning, and creating could all be activities that utilize thinking skills strategies relating to synthesis. Examples might include the sequencing of lines or verses in a song or the events of a story, patterned sequences of shapes and objects, or the creation of a totally new animal from composite body parts.

Evaluation is defined as making judgments about the value of works, ideas, materials, or methods. This indicator involves the use of criteria such as standards in an appraisal. Problem solving and decision making readily lend themselves to thinking skills strategies in the FLES classroom, particularly when those activities involve judging against specific criteria such as the selection of food items from a menu given a set amount of money or the creation of a well-balanced meal from a variety of foods. These activities, like those involving analysis and synthesis, readily lend themselves to providing opportunities for communication since they build upon vocabulary and structure that have been learned.

Thinking Skills in the Secondary Foreign Language Class

As in the elementary classroom, thinking skills can be readily infused into the secondary classroom. A recent publication from the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development entitled *Dimensions of Thinking* (32-33) identifies eight critical and creative thinking processes that are related to knowledge acquisition and/or application of knowledge:

Concept formation
Principle formation
Comprehension
Problem solving
Decision making
Research
Composition
Oral Discourse

Second language teachers can readily see that several of these processes, especially concept formation, comprehension, composition, and oral discourse, are directly related to the teaching of communication skills.

Thinking processes are complex mental operations that require the utilization of several thinking skills. A useful framework for defining individual core thinking skills is provided in *Dimensions of Thinking* (69) (Table 1).

Table 1.

Core Thinking Skills

Focusing Skills

1. Defining Problems
2. Setting goals

Information Gathering Skills

3. Observing
4. Formulating questions

Remembering Skills

5. Encoding
6. Recalling

Organizing Skills

7. Comparing
8. Classifying
9. Representing
10. Representing

Analyzing Skills

11. Identifying attributes and components
12. Identifying relationships and patterns
13. Identifying main ideas
14. Identifying errors

Generating Skills

15. Inferring
16. Predicting
17. Elaborating

Integrating Skills

18. Summarizing
19. Restructuring

Evaluating Skills

20. Establishing criteria
21. Verifying

Individual lessons can be planned emphasizing one or more of these skills while integrating them with the other content and/or skills to be taught.

Robert Swartz and D.N. Perkins (74) suggest that a teacher ask him/herself three questions when preparing to restructure teaching to incorporate more critical thinking:

1. What are the details of the kind of thinking I want to help my student learn?
2. Where, in what I already teach, is there content that can be used for this sort of thinking?
3. How will I organize lessons in which I teach this sort of thinking?

Once the teacher has made the connection between thinking skills and content, he/she must then devise the lesson. Swartz and Perkins (86) further suggest that the lesson needs to have three components. First, it must include cognitive activities that require the structured use of specific thinking skills. Second, it should incorporate metacognitive activities that enable students to become aware of their own thinking. Finally, it should also allow students to reflect on the skills and determine other ways to apply the skills they have learned.

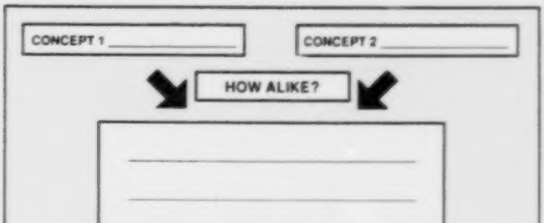
An example of a foreign language lesson that includes these components might be a listening exercise. Students have studied basic vocabulary and are now ready for practice. They are given a sheet of paper that has three interlocking circles. One circle is labeled "girls" in the target language, another is labeled "pets," and a third is labeled "brothers." The teacher than reads a series of statements in the target language such as "Mary has one brother and one cat," "John has three brothers and two dogs," "Ann has no brothers and no pets," etc. The student must write the name of the person in the appropriate place on the graphic of the overlapping groups. In this lesson, students are involved in listening practice and, at the same time, are practicing classification skills.

After this activity is completed it is then necessary to have students think about their own thinking and suggest other ways in which the same skill may be used. Teachers will need to lead students through the metacognitive process by first asking them specific questions about what they listened for. Next, the students can list key words they needed to make the selection. They may then identify other objects, people, etc., that could also be classified using logic circles. Finally, they can be encouraged to design other graphic organizers that would help them picture similar kinds of statements. The metacognitive activities can be conducted in the target language, provided that teachers structure the questions carefully and make certain that they use language that is comprehensible to the student.

Thinking can also be infused into advanced classes studying literary texts. For example, in a French class students could compare one of Aesops' fables with one by LaFontaine, comparing likes and differences. The following graphic organizer in Howard and Sandra Black's *Organizing Thinking: Book II* (11) (Figure 1) can be useful by enabling students to focus on specific points of comparison and contrast. The target language can be substituted for the English in the diagram. Students, working in groups, can complete the organizer and then share their findings with the whole class. The teacher can then guide them through a discussion of how they formed their conclusions and what the likes and differences reveal about the authors.

Figure 1.

Compare and Contrast Diagram*



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* Reprinted with permission from Black, Howard and Sandra Black. *Organizing Thinking - Book 2*. Pacific Grove, CA: Critical Thinking Press & Software (formerly Midwest Publications), 1990, p. 11.

Several thinking skills can be combined in a decision-making activity called "Guess Who's Coming to Dinner." From a list of famous people living or dead, students working in groups must choose six to ten people to attend a dinner and must make a seating chart, placing their guests at specific locations. They then must explain their choice of guests to the class. After the activity is completed, they should then examine how they worked together and what skills they used to arrive at their decisions. The methods and skills used by each group can be cheated in order to show the varieties of possibilities available for decision-making.

Thus, second language teachers, like their colleagues in all areas of the curriculum, can play an important role in helping young people learn how to think critically, creatively, and effectively. In fact, the teaching of thinking is intrinsic in the teaching for communication. Thinking skills are neither new nor difficult for effective second language teachers because second language acquisition and thinking strategies are inexorably intertwined.

Our colleagues in North Carolina, like others throughout the country, are working diligently to proved instruction in a second language to all students. We believe that second language study should be part of a basic education for everyone. However, we still must respond to those critics who view second languages as frills outside the core curriculum. Educators are being challenged to teach students to think and second language teachers are able to meet that challenge. It is important, however, that we become familiar with the literature and language of the thinking skills movement. Then, by restating and, at times, restructuring what we teach, we can once again reinforce or place in the basic curriculum.

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4

Teaching About Holidays as an Aspect of Culture

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Introduction

This article will address the why, the how, and the what of teaching holidays as an aspect of culture in the foreign language classroom. One of the main objectives of the foreign language curriculum is to prepare this generation of students to live in a world that is increasingly interdependent. We live in one world, without frontiers, but it is "a world of difference," to quote part of the motto of the 1991 SCOLT/FLANC Conference. Only through learning to understand different cultures can future generations go beyond tolerance to appreciation of these differences. Consequently, an explicit objective of the foreign language curriculum is to teach about the culture of the countries where the target language is the mother tongue.

How do holidays relate to culture? *«Pour juger ta civilisation, je veux que te me dises quelles sont tes fêtes»* (To get to know your civilization, I want you to tell me about your holidays), Antoine de St. Exurpery said. Examining the most important and typical holidays of a country opens a window on certain aspects of its culture. We understand the word here in its broadest sense, not the capital "C" which is the province of Jack Lang's ministry of Culture and Communication. What and how a nation chooses to celebrate, to what extent the occasion is religious or secular, what foods and music are associated with a particular holiday, to what extent a celebration is a family event or a public one, how regional and class distinctions dictate the format of the celebration -- these are all reflections of national culture.

Customs, traditions, history, geography, music, songs, cuisine, and costumes are all integrated in the study of holidays. Teaching about the 14 July *Fête nationale* incorporates a crucial period in the history of France. Teaching the different *Noël* traditions in the various regions of France highlights the geographical and regional diversity of the country. The tradition of St. Nicholas in the Alsace reflects the North European influence in the North as much as the *Santons* of Provence reflect the Italian and Mediterranean influence in the South.

Comparing and contrasting customs and rituals, not only between regions but between countries, provides an insight into cultural continuity over time and distance. Some holidays are unique to specific countries, like Thanksgiving and Halloween in North America, but others are universal holidays observed according to different traditions in different parts of the world. The *bûche de Noël*, or yule log, is an ancient and indigenous French tradition, for instance, whereas the Christmas tree custom is a relatively recent import.

Most of all, holidays provide an opportunity to touch on various aspects of culture in an interesting, motivational, hands-on context. This is especially important in the context of FLES. The presentation on which this paper is based placed some emphasis on FLES in response to the interest expressed by many of the participants at the conference. The SCOLT/FLANC conference was held in North Carolina which has the pioneer mandatory foreign language program in the public elementary schools.

Keys to Teaching Holidays as Culture

Context and Learning by Doing

Holidays provide an invaluable opportunity to teach culture in context: the customs, historical background, activities, food, costume, songs, and music that are an inseparable part of each holiday tradition. The students will learn by doing: learn the colors of the French flag and tricolor cockade by making paper cockades, for example, and learn the *Chandeleur* tradition by making, and consuming *crêpes*. Interest and motivation are sustained by the objective of the various activities of each holiday unit: a classroom celebration of the holiday, a festive meal, a parade or carnival, or a presentation at a student or PTA assembly.

The Involvement of the School Community

The cooperation of the faculty and the involvement of parents in these holiday celebrations are not only indispensable but also lend visibility and a higher profile to the foreign language program and increase support for it. This is important at a time when many foreign language programs, particularly in the elementary and middle school, need to affirm and justify their presence.

Coordinating holiday activities with the school administration and classroom teachers is crucial, especially for activities that will involve more than one class, or involve a parade, or a presentation to the student assembly or PTA. It is essential to obtain support and consensus ahead of time at faculty meetings and from PTA board members in order to ensure cooperation later.

Calling on parent volunteers is invaluable, especially in elementary school where the students are less able to carry out projects on their own. A FLES teacher, for example, who typically teaches ten classes a day, cannot possibly make ten *bûche de Noël* cakes for her students. Room mothers, however, will usually volunteer with enthusiasm once their help is solicited.

Integration

Integration of foreign language content is a key concept which the foreign language teacher, especially the FLES teacher, should use to the advantage of her program by familiarizing herself with the general curriculum. Ideally she should work in conjunction with the other teachers in the school to coordinate the teaching of related units in different disciplines.

The study of holidays can be integrated at different levels in different grades. A study of Christmas holiday traditions around the world already forms a part of the first grade curriculum, for instance. At one elementary school where the FLES program did not include first grade, the first grade teachers invited the French teacher to come into their classrooms to teach the Christmas unit which they heard she had been teaching to other grades.

The middle school social studies curriculum includes the study of comparative political systems and constitutions. In French class, a study of the 14 July celebration would naturally invite a comparison between the origins of Independence Day and Bastille Day, the American Revolution and the French Revolution, the Bill of Rights and the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen. A later section of this article will suggest worksheets appropriate for that unit.

Grade Appropriateness

It is important to tailor the teaching of culture to the appropriate grade level. FLES students in the lower grades would obviously not be expected to draw parallels between the Bill of Rights and the Declaration of the Rights of Man. They would only learn to recognize the symbols of the French National Day by coloring the tricolor bands in the French flag and by making paper cockades to wear. By the same token, while the target language may be used exclusively during these activities by sufficiently proficient students, students at a lower level will concentrate on learning the specific vocabulary associated with each holiday: *drapeau, tricolore, défilé, pétards,* etc.

Flexibility

Another key element is flexibility. While respecting authenticity, it is possible to be flexible in the format of the celebration by adapting it to classroom purposes and limitation. For the *galette des Rois* in January, for instance, it is customary to serves a *Pithiviers* cake, and almond paste-filled puff pastry. In France today this is usually a store-bought cake. It may be complicated for the teacher to prepare in class, and it can be rather daunting for a parent volunteer to be asked to follow an unfamiliar recipe. However, there are several equally authentic but simpler versions of the *galette des Rois* in different parts of France. In Provence, it is the *fougasse*, which is like a sweet bread dough baked in a crown shape and studded with dried fruit. Most volunteers will not hesitate to make this simple recipe in a bundt cake pan; as long as it contains the *fève*, or lucky charm, the tradition is respected.

Another instance of flexibility is the timing of the celebration. For instance, school is not in session on the fourteenth of July. Rather than ignoring this major French holiday, it is possible to teach the unit during the school year, as part of a PTA presentation, or in conjunction with the corresponding unit in the middle school social studies curriculum.

Sensitivity

Sensitivity is especially important in dealing with holidays of a religious origin. It is essential, or course, to emphasize that the holiday is being taught as culture, and only as culture. Holidays such as Mardi Gras and Christmas are an inseparable part of the life and customs of French-speaking peoples. But as important as public relations efforts are, it is indispensable to be sensitive and flexible in dealing with the teaching of holidays, emphasizing or de-emphasizing certain elements accordingly. Most holidays of a religious origin are so disassociated from their roots in current practice that it is not hard to concentrate on the secular aspects. It is impossible to avoid controversy completely--even a secular holiday like July 14 or Columbus Day can raise certain issues. But awareness of such issues and adequate explanation of the objectives of the program can go a long way toward avoiding criticism.

Creativity

Some holiday customs are inherently suited to classroom purposes. Others can be adapted with minor modifications and simplifications. But in many cases it is up to the teacher to take the spirit of the holiday and create an activity appropriate for the classroom and the grade. The current celebration of St. Catherine's Day, for instance, has evolved considerably from its earlier custom as an occasion on which twenty-five-year-old-"spinsters" wore elaborate hats to a ball. It has now been adopted by the grand couture houses of Paris as a day on which the young woman chosen as the "catherinette" of each establishment is coiffed with a sumptuous hat, in the customary green and yellow shades, and is showered with presents during a day of holiday and merry-making.

How can this holiday be adapted to classroom purposes? Be creative! A suggestion that has met with considerable success is to hold a hat contest. The girls in each class make their own fanciful hats-- again, learning by doing. This gives an opportunity for the students to exercise their creativity, and the results are gratifying indeed! On November 25, there is a hat parade, at which the boys play the role of judges, voting by secret ballot. The wearer of the winning hat receives an award. All of the hats are then displayed in a prominent place in the school, to be admired by students, faculty, and parents. As can be seen in this case, the spirit of St. Catherine's Day can be used to inspire an activity more suited to school purposes.

Suggestions for Lessons and Activities

What a teacher may choose to teach abut holidays will depend on several factors, including grade level. The following is a brief review of the most important French holidays, followed by suggestions for specific classroom activities. The extent to which the target language is used will depend on the level of proficiency of the students. Even at the FLES level, however, new vocabulary associated with each holiday will be introduced. Many of the suggested activities can be adapted for most grade levels, but some are specifically tailored to FLES programs. The holidays we will focus on are St. Catherine's Day; the Christmas season, beginning with St. Nicholas's Day and culminating in the *fête des Rois*; Mardi Gras; *Poisson d'avril*; and July 14.

La S^{te} Catherine: November 25

Catherine of Alexandria was a third-century saint who became the patron of philosophers, students, and girls of marriageable age. In the days when a woman who did not marry by the age of twenty-five was considered a spinster, marriageable young women would wear a fancy hat to the ball on November 25. This was referred to as *coiffer la S^{te} Catherine*. Today the tradition is observed most noticeably in the milieu of haute couture. Each establishment chooses a "catherinette," an unmarried twenty-five year old, who is showered with gifts and is the belle of the ball. The typical colors for St. Catherine's day hats are green and yellow.

The idea lends itself to a delightful classroom activity: organize a hat parade and competition, either on a classroom or a grade level. The girls make and wear their own hats; the boys' role, equally important, is to vote by secret ballot, of course, for the best hat.

It is important to emphasize that the hats are being judged for originality, creativity, and overall appeal rather than the opulence of the hat or the popularity of the wearer. My experience has been that students understood this concept perfectly: some memorable winning hats have been a basketball hoop hat, a paper Christmas tree hat, a bridal veil, a bird's nest hat.

Since it is not always possible to have a parade, a talent contest works well. It gives the contestants something to do while showing off their hats. Four girls at a time (in order to avoid self-consciousness) come to the front of the classroom and sing and dance one of the French songs they know.

After the ballots have been cast, the teacher announces the two runners up and the winner. Each gets an award, but only the first place winner's award reads *Grand Prix*. After the contest all of the hats that were entered can be put on display on a large table or in a display case, to be admired by the whole school.

K-2 grades may be a little young to take part in a parade and contest, but they must feel that they are participating. Kindergarten teachers and aides are usually eager to cooperate with the French teacher in helping the children make little paper hats, which they then wear with great pride to the lunchroom. Boys are also allowed to make caps or hats in order not to be left out.

St. Catherine's Day is an excellent opportunity to develop the vocabulary for clothes; the different kinds of *chapeaux* are distinguished: *bonnet, béret, capeline, cloche*. Moreover, the teacher can use the opportunity to teach the most common *dictons* associated with St. Catherine's, such as the following:

A la Sainte-Catherine, l'hiver s'achemine.
A la saint-André, il est arrivé.
(On St. Catherine's Day, winter is on its way.
By St. Andrew's Day, it is here).

St. Nicholas's Day

The Christmas season can be said to begin with St. Nicholas's Day on December 6. This third century bishop in Asia Minor came to be associated with a multitude of miracles. Two of the best known legends involve the number three. He is said to have come down the chimney of a poor man's home to deposit three bags of gold as dowries for the man's three worthy daughters. He is also credited with having saved three small boys who had been killed and pickled in brine by an evil innkeeper; the saint brought them back to life. It is easy to see in these stories the roots of the tradition of good St. Nicholas who brings presents and goodies to good children.

The observance of St. Nicholas's Day is most prominent in the Alsace and Lorraine regions of France. Parades are held with figures representing the saint in mitre and robe, *Père Fouettard* (Father Whipper, that nemesis of naughty children) carrying switches and dressed in dingy rags, the three children in a barrel of brine, the evil innkeeper, and sundry other characters.

A suitable classroom activity would be the making of gingerbread; *pain d'épice* is the traditional cookie associated with December 6th.

Noël

Other than in the northeast of France, St. Nicholas's Day is increasingly being eclipsed by the newer tradition of *Père Noël*. Like the Christmas pine tree, it is an Anglo-Saxon tradition adopted last in the nineteenth century. *Père Noël* is supplanting *le petit Jésus* as the secret purveyor of gifts for children on Christmas Eve.

Students can gain an appreciation of how the traditions in different countries influence each other over time. *Père Noël* originally started out as Bishop St. Nicholas in medieval Asia Minor, crossed the ocean to America with the Dutch settlers as Sinter Claus, then recently crossed back again under American influence as the merry elf Santa Claus, almost unrecognizable from his original image.

The teacher could point out differences in the way *Père Noël* is traditionally depicted in France as opposed to the image of the jolly fat

Santa Claus current in the U.S.A. *Père Noël* is a dignified, slender man with a long white beard, dressed in long robes; a donkey may accompany him to help carry the sack of toys. He comes down the chimney to put presents in the shoes, boots, or slippers of well-behaved children. In the old days, wooden clogs called *sabots* were left out for *Père Noël* to fill. This tradition is still reflected in the chocolate *sabots* which, along with chocolate *Père Noëls* and donkeys, fill pastry shop windows in the season.

In contrast to the American custom of opening presents and having the holiday meal on Christmas Day, most French people continue to hold a *Réveillon* dinner on Christmas Eve, after midnight mass, and to open presents after midnight. The traditional goose is increasingly being replaced by a chestnut-stuffed turkey as the main course on the *Réveillon* menu, but the *bûche de Noël* continues to reign supreme as dessert.

An activity that ties in with school festivities just before the holiday break is making some version of the *bûche de Noël*, the famous chocolate yule cake. The *bûche de Noël* goes back to a very old tradition of bring in a wood log on Christmas Eve. Today the custom is symbolized by the *bûche de Noël*, which is usually a chocolate sponge cake rolled around a chocolate cream filling and frosted with chocolate frosting scored with a fork to look like the bark on a log. It is then decorated lavishly, with everything from meringue mushrooms to tiny figures of *Père Noël*.

The *bûche de Noël* version is much simpler and equally successful with the students. Instead of one large cake, bake several small logs in twelve-ounce frozen juice concentrate cans. To simplify things even further, use a cake mix and ready-made frosting. Fill the buttered and floured cans less than two-thirds full, and stand them upright on a large cookie sheet. They can be baked in the school kitchen ovens. When they are cooled and unmolded, they can be frosted and decorated in the classroom. Allow one can per three students.

Ever popular with children are two Christmas songs, «*Petit Papa Noël*» and «*Entre le Boeuf et L'Ane Gris.*» The awe-inspiring «*Minuit Chrétiens*» is tradition for midnight mass on Christmas Eve.

Le Jour de l'An

New Year's Day, also called *la St Sylvestre*, is the occasion for a *Réveillon* party the eve before. This occasion is more for adults than children. Presents called *étrennes* are exchanged. The French send each other New Year's greeting cards rather than Christmas cards. A suitable classroom activity would be writing New Year's greetings in French to give to friends and family.

La Fête des Rois

The *fête des rois* is observed on January 6, Epiphany. The celebration is meant to commemorate the arrival of the three Magi, called the three kings in France. In the weeks preceding Christmas, many French families put up a *crèche*, or manger scene, in their homes. The figurines of the three kings are initially set quite far from the manger and are brought closer and closer until they "arrive" on January 6. Apart from the nativity characters, many other *santons* are included in the *crèche*. These charming figurines, in painted glazed clay or in cloth (*santons habillés*) originated in Italy and are now a traditional craft of the Provence region. They come in all shapes and sizes of country characters: the miller, the baker, the woodsman, the old woman carrying sticks, etc.

On the occasion of the *fête des Rois*, the family and friends come together to serve a special cake called a *galette*, which contains a lucky charm, called a *fève*. The *galette* is round and flat and made of *pâte feuilletée*, or puff pastry, filled with almond paste. Inside it is baked a tiny ceramic charm, traditionally a small porcelain baby, but today the possibilities are endless. *Fèves* range from crowns and playing cards to race cars. In France these cakes are sold in bakeries along with a gold or silver paper crown. When the cake is portioned out, the lucky person who finds the *fève* is crowned king or queen for the day, and may choose a consort. This is called *tirer les rois*. Everyone drinks to the health of the monarch and imitates his actions. This occasion is increasingly the province of children's parties.

For classroom purposes, the teacher should enlist the help of volunteer parents, often room mothers, who would be willing to help by making the cake and the crown. Recipes for the *galette* can be found in cookbooks under the name of *Pithiviers* cakes, and can be made from commercial frozen puff pastry and almond paste. Just as authentic but even simpler is an alternative type of *galette*, the *fougasse* or sweet bread dough in the shape of a crown, which is traditional to Provence. This coffee-cake like recipe can be baked in a bundt pan. As for the *fève*, any heat-resistant charm will do, as long as it is big enough so there is no chance of a child swallowing it by mistake. The crown can be cut out of gold or silver construction paper or stiff foil and adjusted to the size of a child's head.

In class, the teacher cuts a piece of cake for each student. A student sits under the table and assigns each piece of cake to each person in turn. The one who finds the charm in his or her piece is crowned king or queen. The monarch then directs the activities of the class, and everyone must follow his lead. He can lead the class in a game of follow the leader or «*Jacques a dit*,» Simon says.

Mardi Gras

Mardi gras, called Shrove Tuesday, precedes *mercredi des Cendres*, Ash Wednesday. It was traditionally the day when families used up all the foodstuffs they would be giving up for Lent (*le Carême*), hence its name, literally Fat Tuesday. In many countries it is known as Pancake Tuesday, but the French associate pancakes more with *la Chandeleur*, 2 February. On that occasion, it is supposed to bring prosperity to be able to flip the *crêpe* or pancake while holding a coin in one's hand at the same time. Making *crêpes* in class is a popular activity, not to mention an exercise in manual dexterity!

Mardi Gras, in February, is carnival time not only in France but all over the French-speaking world. Indeed the New Orleans carnival is at least as well known as that in Nice or Quebec. Each region has its own carnival customs, but in general parties are held during which everyone wears costumes and masks, and there is a grand parade with floats (*chars*) covered in flowers, on which elaborate scenes are depicted. People wear huge, grotesque papier mâché masks, some people are on stilts, bands play, there is dancing and fireworks. In Nice and Quebec, there is a *Roi Carnaval*, a gigantic papier mâché puppet who is king of festivities. In New Orleans, real people play the roles of carnival king and queen.

Two Mardi Gras activities can be carried out at school: making masks and having a costume parade and competition. Making masks is already part of the art curriculum in most school systems, and there is usually no difficulty in securing the cooperation of the art teacher. Although the more elaborate papier mâché masks are best done during art class, there are very simple masks that can be done in French class under the supervision of the French teacher alone, such as the small *loup* or hand-held ball masks or masks made of construction paper. When the masks are completed, they are worn to the parade, and the best of them are displayed on screens around the school.

For the Mardi Gras parade, the teacher can ask the students to wear a costume; it need not be elaborate. Most children have a Halloween costume; in any case all will have a mask to wear. In my experience students and parents alike are very enthusiastic about this activity and come up with charming and creative costumes. A successful format is to have the students parade in costume through the school to the auditorium, where a panel of judges is seated. Each class or grade parades separately, singing a Mardi Gras song. Judges (principal, assistant principal, art teacher, etc.) are asked to judge the best costume and the best mask, either per class or per grade. The French teacher provides the prizes; French/English dictionaries are appropriate. A suitable song would be the Mardi Gras song, the refrain of which is

Mardi Gras et carnaval	*Beaux costumes pour les bals*
Dans les rues des défilés	*Tout le monde est gai*
Si tu danses avec moi	*Nous fêterons le Mardi Gras.*

(Mardi Gras and carnival	Fine costumes for the balls
Parades in the streets	Everyone is gay
If you dance with me	We will celebrate Mardi Gras.)

Poisson D'Avril

On April 1 the custom among schoolchildren especially is to cut out paper fish and stick them to the back of an unsuspecting victim. This trick is called a *poisson d'avril*. For a classroom activity, students can draw and cut out fishes.

La Fête Nationale

July 14 is celebrated as the date when the Bastille fell to the revolutionaries in 1789. The Bicentennial of the French Revolution was celebrated as a global event in the summer of 1989. The heads of state from around the world went to Paris to watch the spectacular, international, four-hour parade down the Champs Elysées.

It is therefore particularly timely to focus on *14 juillet* in the classroom. In addition, this holiday is of direct relevance to the social studies curriculum and provides an excellent opportunity for comparing and contrasting between the American and French revolutions.

Although the July 14 *Fête nationale* is a secular holiday, it has not escaped its share of controversy. The French are still divided over the commemoration of this revolution which reached both unsurpassed heights of idealism and the nadir of horror. The Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen epitomizes the former, the guillotine the latter. Ironically enough, while it was shunned as republican (in the French political sense) by the bourgeoisie, it was boycotted for a time by the communists as too bourgeois!

Nevertheless, there is consensus that the French Revolution changed the world forever, just as Columbus's voyage did. Its legacy is the language of political democracy and the idea of progress: without it, the scientific, technological, economic, social and political innovations of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries would not have been possible. It was the dawning of the age of logic and reason, as William Wordsworth described it: "bliss at that dawn to be alive."

La prise de la Bastille on July 14, 1789, marked the beginning of the Revolution. The 300-year-old Bastille fortress was a symbol of the oppression and tyranny of the *ancien régime*. It was stormed, the handful of prisoners were freed, and then it was demolished. From the very first anniversary of the fall of the Bastille, when the people danced in the streets on the site of the demolished fortress, comes the tradition of the *bals populaires*.

Over the centuries July 14 parades were more or less elaborate, and the importance of the celebration waxed and waned with the political climate of the day. In 1880 it was declared a *Fête nationale*. The celebration gained importance whenever the patriotic and nationalist spirit was on the rise, as after the defeat in the Franco-Prussian War, or after the victories of WWI and WWII. The unequalled fanfare with which the 1989 bicentennial was celebrated indicated that it was time for the French to "assume" their revolutionary history and accept July 14 as a national holiday for all the people.

Much like July 4 in the United States, the July 14 holiday is usually celebrated with parades and fireworks. Apart from the grand military parades, each town holds a local parade, led by *monsieur* or *madame le maire* wearing a tricolor sash, and followed by flag-waving veterans, *gendarmes, sapeurs-pompiers, majorettes* and children. *Pétards* (firecrackers) are heard everywhere, and in the evening there are *bals populaires* in the public squares and parks.

Students of all grades can learn to recognize the symbols of the French Revolution: the tricolor flag, the *bonnet phrygien*, the *cocardes*, the guillotine, the *sans-culottes*, the *Marianne*, the slogan of the republic (*liberté, égalité, fraternité), la «Marseillaise.»*

The *cocarde*, or cockade, round with red, white, and blue ribbons was adopted as a patriotic emblem for the Revolution. It combines the blue and red colors of the city of Paris, along with the white of the Bourbon kings. The people of Paris offered this cockade to Louis XVI, who wore it himself as a sign of his support for the Revolution in the early days.

The Phrygian cap is the patriotic red cap with a pointed peak worn by the revolutionaries. It was a symbol of freed slaves in the Roman era.

The *Tricolore*, the tricolor flag with three vertical bands, taking its colors from the red, white and blue *cocarde*, was adopted in 1790.

The *Marianne*, a female allegorical figure symbolizing the Republic, is portrayed wearing the Phrygian cap. Busts of the *Marianne* may be seen in the town halls in France, adorned with a tricolor sash on July 14. The features of the *Marianne* have changed over the years. At a time the busts were modelled after Brigitte Bardot, a French movie star, and subsequently Catherine Deneuve, also an actress. Recently the latest *Marianne* is Inès de la Fressange, a fashion model, and ironically, an aristocrat!

Sans-culottes was a name given to the revolutionaries, common people who wore trousers instead of the fancy breeches and stockings favored by the aristocracy.

Liberté, égalité, fraternité ou la mort (liberty, equality, fraternity or death) was the slogan of the French Revolution and the Declaration of the Rights of Man.

The «*Marseillaise,*» a patriotic song written by Roget de Lisle in Strasbourg in 1792, was popularized by the Marseille National Guard in Paris and was adopted as the French anthem.

It is easy for students to make small paper French flags out of strips of red, white and blue construction paper. More elaborate flags can be bought, or made out of flag material. The French flag is providentially easy in design, as long as the proportions are observed: the white panel must be somewhat narrower than the blue and the red in order to give the illusion of being equal in width.

Cockades can be made by drawing three concentric circles on white paper, coloring the innermost blue, leaving the middle one white, and coloring the outermost red. Circles of blue, white, and red construction paper, graduated in size, can be superimposed, first blue, then white, then red, and stapled together, for simple cockades. More elaborate cockades can be made of tricolor crepe streamers, available around July 4 in the States. They are stitched and puckered in the center, with two ends of ribbon left dangling. The same can be done with grosgrain tricolor ribbon.

Phyrigian caps are simple to make: the traditional shape with peaked crown and flaps over the ears can be cut out of red crepe paper, or red felt, then stitched at the seam.

Although July 14 falls when school is out, the celebration can be the theme for part of a school program such as PTA concerts. A group of students presenting a song, dressed in Phrygian caps with cockades, waving tricolor flags, and beating on the drums (*tambours* are, of course, strongly associated with the Revolution) make for a visually striking and successful presentation. The «*Marseillaise*» is the song of choice, but it may be too complicated for lower grades. Any appropriate song will do, such as «*Dansons la Capucine.*»

From middle school on up, students can be taught the parallels between the French and American revolutions, the Bill of Rights and the Declaration of the Rights of Man, and the reciprocal role played by Frenchmen and Americans in each other's revolutions. (For an example of a worksheet suitable for this unit, see the Appendix.)

Conclusion

This brings us full cycle to the objective of teaching holidays as culture. We live in one world. What better way to reinforce the relevancy of this concept than by teaching our students that, two hundred years ago, the great intellects of the times already subscribed to the belief that they lived in a world without frontiers? The founding fathers of the United States were actively involved in the French Revolution: Thomas Jefferson helped draft the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen; Benjamin Franklin is equally revered with Rousseau and Voltaire in the pantheon of the French Revolution; Thomas Paine was elected to the French National Assembly as a representative of the district of Pas de Calais.

In conclusion, by learning to recognize the similarities, and celebrate the differences, in other cultures, future generations will truly be able to say: *«Vive la différence!»*

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Appendix

Compare

American Revolution	*French Revolution*
July 4 1776	July 14 1789
Constitution 1787	Constitution 1791
Bill of Rights 1789	Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen 1789
Freedom of Speech and of Religion: Amendment 1	Freedom of Religion, opinion and speech: Articles 10, 11
Abolishment of slavery: Amendment 8	"Men are born and remain free and equal": Article 1
Right to a just trial: Amendments 6, 7, 8	Right to a just trial: Article 9

Americans in the French Revolution

Q. Which American was revered as one of the founding fathers of the French Revolution, along with Frenchmen like Rousseau and Voltaire?
A. **Benjamin Franklin**

Q. Which American contributed to the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen?
A. **Thomas Jefferson**

Q. Which American was elected to the French National Convention?
A. **Thomas Paine**

5

Reinforcing the Elementary School Curriculum with Content-Based FLES

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In the recent past, events have occurred that only a few years before seemed impossible. What would you have said if someone had told you in 1970 that the Germanies would reunite, that one out of every two homes would have a videocassette recorder, or that foreign language in the elementary school (FLES) would experience a revival? All of these occurrences seemed highly improbable.

With the reanimation of FLES comes the responsibility of creating meaningful, appropriate foreign language instruction for children. The purpose of this article is to discuss the infusion of FLES into the curriculum employing a content-based approach. What follows are a definition and rationale for content-based FLES, and suggested activities for the content-based FLES classroom.

Definition of Content-based FLES

Content-based FLES is teaching children a foreign language via other content areas in the elementary school curriculum such as math, science, social studies, or health. Instead of memorizing lists of words out of context, the children learn how to communicate in a real, meaningful way. For example, rather than studying the numbers from 1-50 in isolation, the children manipulate the numbers in combination with practicing patterning, estimating, measuring, weighing, or graphing. A unit on nutrition allows the child to do more than identify foods. Instead, the learner uses the vocabulary to demonstrate what makes a healthy breakfast, or how to prepare a nutritious snack. Content-based FLES teaches real language usage while at the same time reinforcing the elementary school curriculum. The FLES teacher usually presents a unit after the elementary school classroom teacher. Examples of these units might be animals and their habitats, or the mathematical concept of patterning. This heightens comprehension of all students by employing the recognition and review component to learning.

Rationale for Content-based FLES

In the 1950s and early 1960s, FLES was widespread across the United States (Mildenberger, 1956). By the 1970s, FLES had all but disappeared from our elementary schools. Some educators maintained that a return to the basics brought about the withdrawal of FLES programs; others asserted budgetary constraints. Yet, those reasons masked deeper problems with K-6 foreign language teaching. The number of FLES programs declined several decades ago because of a lack of

1. qualified teachers
2. realistic goals and objectives
3. homework, grades and evaluation
4. parental support
5. program articulation with the junior high and high school
6. appropriate pedagogy
7. student books and other materials
8. meaningful curricula (Curtain & Pesola, 1988; Heining-Boynton, 1990; Lipton, 1988; Spaar, 1968).

Although all of the above reasons led to the virtual disappearance of FLES, Spaar's research could lead one to argue that the lack of meaningful curriculum was the most serious. Spaar surveyed adolescents who had studied a foreign language in the elementary school. These students reported time and again that they were unhappy with their FLES experience because they were only able to point to a few objects and say their names. They wanted to be able to do more with the language.

Learning via content-based FLES, the students do more than name objects. They use the target language in a real, meaningful, age-appropriate context. For example, rather than simply identify animals from pictures, the content-based FLES students will be able to classify whether an animal lives on the land or in the sea. Another content-based lesson on animals might allow the students to rank the animals from their most to least favorite. Identifying animals and their habitats and ranking items in a series are concepts taught in the regular elementary school classroom.

In addition to providing a vehicle for the students to use real language in a meaningful context, content-based FLES reinforces the regular elementary school curriculum. Currently, many articles can be found in educational publications as well as local newspapers that deal with the student at risk of failing. Also plentiful are reports of the abysmal standardized test scores of American students. When schools use a content-based approach to FLES, the students receive reinforcement in the target language of basic concepts already introduced in their regular elementary school classroom. For example, repetition in the FLES class of science material already presented by the regular classroom teacher provides students yet another opportunity to review important points about the subject. For weaker students, this review offers them another occasion to be exposed to important science information; the stronger students encounter interesting new ways of revisiting topics already familiar to them. Studies by Raffety (1986) and Holobow (1988) confirm this by demonstrating that students studying FLES did better on standardized tests than students who did not.

A third reason to incorporate content-based instruction in a FLES program is to enhance higher order thinking skills. Numerous school districts across the country require their teachers to document the incorporation of the skills of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation in their lessons. In content-based FLES, students perform tasks such as classification, analysis, hypothesizing, and validation on a daily basis. Foster and Reeves (1989) documented a distinct advantage among FLES versus non-FLES students with evaluation, the highest skill in Bloom's taxonomy.

Finally, content-based FLES helps to justify the study of foreign language as an integral part of the K-6 curriculum. A current complaint among elementary school teachers and administrators is that the elementary school day is already overcrowded with classes and activities. Adding FLES becomes a practical choice for curriculum planners once it is understood that teaching a foreign language with a content-based approach reinforces the other subject areas and is not just a frill. K-6 educators understand the importance of reviewing previously introduced material, and content-based FLES is an excellent way to review familiar concepts while learning a new language.

In spite of difficulties several decades ago, FLES is making a comeback. Presently, five states require early foreign language study. Other states and communities are planning FLES implementation (*ACTFL*

Newsletter, 9-10). By employing content-based FLES, new programs can create meaningful and academically beneficial foreign language experiences for children.

How to Incorporate Content-based FLES

How does a foreign language teacher know what the children have or have not already studied in the elementary classroom? One way is to consult state and/or local curriculum guidelines. These documents enumerate the concepts introduced at each grade level and the order in which they are presented. Another method of discovering what constitutes the K-6 curriculum is to interview or survey elementary teachers, asking them to list what concepts they teach and in what order.

When the decision is made to use content-based FLES, curricular planning can be simplified by first focusing on one area, such as math. Integrating multiple content areas at the same time can make lesson planning and the acquisition of teaching materials complex.

Once a focus content area has been selected, the FLES curriculum planners need to determine how many weeks to spend on a given unit. The number of classes and total minutes per week will also enter into the decision-making process. Content-based FLES allows the teachers to present more than vocabulary lists, hence affording children the ability to listen, speak, read, and/or write about a topic that is age appropriate and meaningful to them. The more time spent on a topic, the more a child can do with the language. Content-based FLES instruction goes well beyond naming classroom objects.

Suggestions for Content-Based FLES Classes

What follows are suggestions for the content-based elementary foreign language class. These activities are based on learner outcomes selected from North Carolina's *Standard Course of Study and Introduction to the Competency-Based Curriculum* (1985). In 1988, North Carolina began implementing state mandated K-6 foreign language study for all children in the state. Many of the districts employ a content-based approach since it complies with both the *Teacher Handbook: Second Language Studies K-12* (1985) and *The Standard Course of Study*. Once a concept has been introduced by a regular classroom teacher, the foreign language teachers adjust the material based on the cognitive level of the child, transforming the activities so that they are appropriate for older learners. For example, the mathematical concept of sequencing is taught in the first grade in many districts. The FLES teacher may choose to incorporate sequencing in the foreign language lesson immediately after the regular classroom teacher introduced the concept. Or, by adjusting for developmental characteristics, sequencing can be revisited in the upper elementary grades through content-based FLES.

FLES teachers, like any elementary school classroom teacher, are often familiar but not fluent with topics covered in the curriculum. Researching topics such as dinosaurs or Native American populations is common practice among dedicated teachers. Consulting encyclopedias, magazines like *National Geographic*, or children's books on a particular topic provides necessary information for teachers to plan their lessons.

The following activities are grouped by content area.[1] The sky is the only limit to the number and variations possible.

Mathematics

As early as kindergarten, children learn basic concepts of classification and the graphing of objects. Three kindergarten learner outcomes are that the children will be able to

1. classify objects using specific attributes;
2. determine the larger of two sets of objects;
3. read simple horizontal and vertical bar graphs (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 1985, 224-25).

In this lesson, the students classify and graph the types of shoes (tennis shoes, sandals, boots, etc.) worn in their class. After the class creates a bar graph on the blackboard, the students count the number of pairs of shoes in each category. Then when given two groups of shoe types, they either point or say which group is the larger.

Prior language knowledge would include numbers from one to twenty, types of shoes, and question words. Each child needs a "marker." "Markers" represent each child when creating graphs based on classifications like birthdays, pets, or as in this activity, types of shoes. Bottle caps or dried lima beans make quick markers. Other markers can be a school photograph of the child, an original self-portrait that the child has drawn, or a black-line/clip art illustration of a child like those developed by Met (1989). Including the child's name is optional. Laminating paper markers insures reuse. If the blackboard is magnetic, glue a magnetic strip to the back of the marker.

The lesson begins with the teacher drawing (or using pictures of) three categories of shoes at the top of the blackboard like tennis shoes, boots, and sandals.[2] The teacher asks who is wearing tennis shoes. All those wearing tennis shoes come to the front of the room and line their marker, either with tape or a magnet, under the correct category. Repeat the procedure for the other two categories. Next, the children count either individually or chorally to tell how many shoes compose each category. The teacher reads the graph with the children, asking them how many shoes are in each category. Finally, the teacher asks which group is larger, using two groups at a time.

In the *Standard Course of Study*, third graders are exposed to estimating outcomes (226). Predicting how many types of shoes compose each category raises the level of cognitive skills involved in the activity as does including more categories of shoes. Grouping the shoes by other characteristics like color or the way they close (ties, velcro, buckle, slip-on) adds variety.

An advanced activity for older (first grade and older) students engages the students in tracing their foot. After coloring, cutting out the footprint, and writing their name on it, the students' footprint markers create horizontal or vertical bar graphs based on any number of categories. The student's footprints also become a nonstandard unit of measure. The students, using the footprints, can measure the teacher's desk, the distance to the office, or the height of a classmate.

Science

A first grader studies air and water properties (NC Department of Public Instruction, 265). One easy experiment demonstrates that air occupies space. Balloons and a bottle are necessary. The necessary vocabulary can either be pretaught using visuals or manipulatives, or introduced in the presentation. The active vocabulary words are "balloon," "bottle," "air," and "inflate."

The teacher puts a deflated balloon into a bottle and stretches the open end of the balloon over the bottle's mouth. The teacher asks a student to attempt to inflate the balloon. The balloon will not inflate because the bottle is already full of air and has no more space to allow the balloon to expand.

Depending on the speaking competence of the youngsters, the teacher can either explain the phenomenon to the students or ask the children to tell what happened. As with all content-based lessons, the FLES teacher would present this after the children had learned about air occupying space in their regular classroom. Based on previous knowledge acquired from their regular classroom, the children will review or be reintroduced to this scientific notion.

Second graders explore matter, and the properties of floating and sinking (NC Department of Public Instruction, 266). An object floats in water if its density is less than the density of water. Prior language knowledge includes fruits and vegetables, and the words "dense," "to float," and "to sink." Demonstrating this concept requires an apple, an orange, a banana, a carrot, a tomato, and a bowl of water. The students hypothesize which fruits and vegetables will float and which will sink. The teacher should allow the students to revise their predictions as the experiment progresses.

The apple, orange, and banana will probably float, but not the tomato or carrot. Peeled oranges sometimes sink since the fruit is denser than the peel.[3]

Health Education

Second graders study nutrition in the classroom and are able to name the five food groups and make healthy meal choices based on those groups (NC Department of Public Instruction, 175-6).

Using laminated visuals and/or real and plastic foods, the teacher reviews the foods with the children. One way is to have the teacher or a student describe a food and have the other students guess what it is. Next, name the five food groups and invite students to name foods belonging to each group.

The teacher incorporates Total Physical Response (TPR) by creating the four basic food group categories either on the board, the floor, or desks. The students select foods from the visuals or manipulatives available, and place the foods in the correct group. Then, the teacher asks if the child likes that food. In a follow-up exercise, the children can graph who likes what foods.

In another activity, the children cut food pictures from old magazines that combine the food groups for a well-balanced breakfast, lunch, and dinner. They paste the foods on a paper plate, and share verbally with a classmate what they selected. Working in pairs or groups furnishes the students with more opportunities to engage in the language. Yet another activity is for the students to create meals that are not nutritious and explain to their classmate why they are not.

Physical Education

Teachers introduce simple folk dance skills in the third grade (NC Department of Public Instruction, 189). The students perfect coordination and benefit cardiovascularly from the dances. Culturally, they gain from the exposure to the folk music of the target culture. Little or no prior foreign language knowledge is necessary. Also, common international sports like baseball and soccer lend themselves well to a FLES class. Students learn vocabulary in the target language (e.g., team, win, lose, score) and at the same time they observe that some of their favorite pastimes are shared by children like them in other lands.

Other Content Areas

Social studies, art, music, and language arts all lend themselves to inclusion in the content-based FLES class. Reviewing geography, making native crafts, singing authentic songs, and punctuating sentences in the target language are all exercises that reemphasize subject matter learned in the elementary classroom. Networking with other elementary school teachers and searching though primary grades resource materials supply the FLES teacher with a cornucopia of ideas.[4]

Conclusions

Content-based FLES benefits students and schools in a variety of ways. First, the foreign language affords the children a vehicle for meaningful use of vocabulary and expressions learned in the target language. Second, content-based FLES reviews and reinforces concepts from other content areas previously learned in the regular classroom. Third, content-based FLES strengthens the child's use of higher order thinking skills by encouraging analysis, synthesis, and evaluation in a second language. Finally, content-based FLES creates positive public relations that justify early foreign language instruction in what is felt to be an already-crowded elementary curriculum. Since content-based FLES is a concrete, hands-on, active approach to learning language, it successfully addresses the differing learning styles of youngsters. And, content-based FLES affords the child the ability to communicate in a meaningful way, which is what communication is all about.[5]

Notes

1. School districts and/or state guidelines may differ from North Carolina's in terms of when concepts are first introduced. Also, some teachers may have classes that are developmentally dissimilar from what is considered "the norm." In those cases, teachers should modify the learner outcomes to best accommodate their students.

2. This creates a vertical graph. Draw the categories at the side of the board for horizontal graphs.
3. There are a number of fine references for teachers describing easy and fun experiments in Hart-David (1989) and in Herbert (1980).
4. Andrade, Pesola, and Christian (1987); Chamberlaine, Quinn and Spanos (1987); Cuevas, Dale, Tokar, Richardson, and Willets (1987); King, Matthiese, and Bellino (1987); and Torres-Quinones (1990) contribute numerous additional content-based activities.
5. Sources for further information on content-based instruction are Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989); Cantoni-Harvey (1987); Curtain and Martinez (1989); Curtain (1986); Leaver and Stryker (1989); Mohan (1986a); and Mohan (1986b).

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6

Celebrating 1992: Rediscovering our Indigenous and Hispanic Heritages

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Introduction

The arrival of the year 1992 signals a milestone in the history of the Americas. The quincentennial anniversary of 1492 is an appropriate time for reassessing the traditional interpretation of the voyages of Columbus and of the subsequent years of European influence in the Americas. It also provides the opportunity to scrutinize the present and plan for the future.

The era of discovery, conquest, and colonization that spanned the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries is long past. The period of establishment of independent nations in the Americas which began in 1776 and continued through the whole of the nineteenth century is now just a small part of history. The twentieth century has witnessed major industrialization, population growth, and political turbulence. As we look to the twenty-first century, we must utilize the spirit and the resources of the quincentennial commemoration to give focus to reflection, self-study, and planning for a future based on cooperation and mutual understanding between nations and cultures.

It is appropriate for the educational community to focus on both 1492 and 1992. The renewal of scholarship on the Age of Discovery and its modern-day implications will serve students and teachers alike. Following are the goals of the present study: (1) to encourage multicultural and interdisciplinary studies; (2) to expand horizons and interests from different points of view so that all may become better individuals and better citizens of the world; (3) to provide ideas and points of departure for enrichment activities whether they bring in the formal academic setting (units of study, field trips, outside readings) or take the form of individual professional-development projects or family vacations; (4) to identify resource materials, permanent collections, special exhibits, and activities associated with or inspired by the 500th anniversary commemoration (see Appendix). By necessity, this study is limited almost entirely to materials pertaining to the South and the southeast United States and is by no means all inclusive.

Evidence of Broadening Perspectives

The current interest in 1492 shows that both public and scholarly perspectives have been broadening since the 400th anniversary of Columbus's journey was commemorated in 1892 and 1893. Evidence of this is abundant. First, the word "discovery" is now often eschewed in favor of terms such as "encounter," "change," "exchange," "collision," "contact," and "clash of cultures." A cursory review of articles and special editions of popular news magazines and journals yields the following examples: "When Worlds Collide" (*Newsweek*, Fall-Winter 1991); "When Two Worlds Become One: The Archaeology of the Contact Period" and "A Clash of Cultures" (*Archaeology*, January-February 1990); and *Encounters* (publication of the Latin American Institute, University of New Mexico).

Much attention is given not only to the European influence on the Western Hemisphere but also to the economic, political, and social changes brought to the Old World by its contact with the Americas. Thus, the active participation of the cultures of both the New and the Old worlds are recognized. The above-mentioned special issue of *Newsweek* is subtitled "How Columbus's Voyages Transformed Both East and West," and features articles on "The Great Disease Migration" and "The Great Food Migration." Likewise, the largest single exhibition ever mounted by the Smithsonian Institution explores five "Seeds of Change"--sugar, corn, disease, the horse, and the potato--which traveled from one continent to another.

Second, although Spain herself is taking a definite lead in celebrating Columbus's achievements by sponsoring the Olympics, the World's Fair, the replica caravels, and numerous scholarships for study abroad (to name only a few of her projects), the countries in the Western Hemisphere tend to be more interested in analyzing the event from the point of view of the indigenous peoples and, to a lesser extent, from that of the Africans who were forcibly transplanted to the New World ("My Turn: I Won't Be Celebrating Columbus Day" and "Slavery: How It Built the New World," both in *Newsweek*, Fall-Winter 1991; "1491: America Before Columbus," *National Geographic*, October 1991).

Third, the mixing of cultures is now viewed as a more important aspect of the creation of the modern nation of the United States ("The Columbian Mosaic in Colonial America," *Humanities*, September-October 1991; and "Jews and the Encounter with the New World, 1492-1992," a series of public programs at the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor).

Fourth, the interdisciplinary courses and programs which are becoming so much more common in U.S. colleges and universities today and which engender collaboration among departments lend themselves well to the study of the events of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Special programs, such as the interdisciplinary symposium "1492-1992: Columbus Rediscovered" at Slippery Rock University (27-29 March 1992), are generating a growing interest in the historical, sociological, scientific, literary, and artistic perspectives of the age.

Finally, there is widespread recognition that peoples and nations must join together to plan for the future. On one side of the Atlantic, the European Community will solidify in 1992; on the other side, the United States finds its economic well-being tied ever closer to Mexico and Canada.

The Traditional Perspective

Commonly, instructors and students of Spanish are well acquainted with the major indigenous populations in the former Spanish territories of the Americas. The Olmecs, Mayas, Aztecs, and Incas are widely known for their advanced civilizations; their artistic and architectural skills; their successful production of corn, potatoes, *quinoa*, and other staple products; their class system; their religious beliefs and rituals; and their knowledge of science and astronomy. All up-to-date Spanish textbooks contain cultural readings devoted to Mesoamerica and South America. Equally well-known are the explorations and military feats of the Spanish, with the expeditions of Cortés and Pizarro ranking among the most thoroughly studied. Much attention is also given to the role of the Catholic church in Latin America and to its influence on the daily life of the people. In short, the interaction of the Spanish and indigenous cultures in the history of Latin American culture is well documented and widely recognized.

For teachers and students who desire to study more about the great pre-Columbian Indian empires, the United States boasts many fine museums and collections of pre-Columbian artifacts from the Hispanic areas. Among the most notable are those collections at the Museum of Natural History in the Smithsonian complex, the Peabody Museum at Harvard University, and the Dumbarton Oaks Museum in Georgetown, Washington, DC. The latter, though small, contains an extremely impressive group of Olmec, Maya, Aztec, Chibcha, Moche, and Inca artifacts including a man's tunic of very intricate geometric patterns which is said to be the finest example of weaving from the Inca empire in existence today. In the North Carolina area, the collections at the Duke University Museum in Durham and the Mint Museum in Charlotte are magnificent, and the North Carolina Museum of Art also has a limited but very pleasing display. Teachers should check the state and university museums in their areas.

The Need for Increased Awareness

While there is a general awareness in the United States of the influences of the Spanish and Indian cultures in Latin America, far less is known about the Hispanic influence in the territories that became the United States and even less about the indigenous cultures prior to 1492. Experience with undergraduates shows that the great majority do not know that the oldest city in the U.S. (St. Augustine) was established by the Spanish and they cannot compare chronologically developments in different parts of the Americas. For example, they must be reminded that Spain established herself in Mexico a full century before the founding of Plymouth, Massachusetts. North Carolina students recall that Hernando de Soto "discovered" the Mississippi River, but do not seem to know that his route took him through the mountains of their state.

An informal gathering of information at a slide presentation during one session of the joint SCOLT/FLANC Conference in October 1991 in the Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, revealed that approximately 150 foreign language teachers (the majority were teachers of Spanish) were able in group participation to identify specific objects or manifestations of past cultures in Hispanic countries: Mayan pottery; an aerial view of the Mayan site of Chichén-Itzá with its pyramid "El Castillo," its ball court, and its observatory; an Olmec head sculpture; the ruins of the Andean city of Machu Picchu; Inca (Quechua) weavings; *shullos* from the *altiplano* region of Perú and Bolivia; and Diego Rivera's murals depicting Aztec history and culture. In contrast, no one could identify an aerial view of Poverty Point, Louisiana, despite the fact that for its size, conception, and execution, it is one of the most significant archaeological sites in North America "as equally ancient and equally ambitious" as Stonehenge (Kennedy, 10). No one recognized outstanding examples of Mississippian effigy figures or shell gorget carvings from Tennessee and Alabama. No one could name the Town Creek Mound at Mt. Gilead, North Carolina, nor the Chucalissa site near Memphis, Tennessee. No one recognized the oldest house in St. Augustine. No one placed John Trumbull's painting of the landing of Columbus in the rotunda of the National Capitol in Washington, D.C. A few identified a typical Navajo weaving; only one or two recognized the Rock Eagle Effigy Mound near Eatonton, Georgia; several identified a portrait of Sequoyah (perhaps because he was depicted holding a copy of his alphabet); and many knew the former San Antonio de Valero Mission in Texas as the Alamo.

The overall impression left by these admittedly informal methods of investigation is that Spanish instructors are certainly knowledgeable of the past cultures and history of the Hispanic countries and that students are exposed to these areas in their classes. It is also concluded informally that U.S. history, social studies, and Spanish curricula do not put enough emphasis on the Hispanic and indigenous roots of our nation's heritage. Apparently, public awareness of the Hispanic and indigenous history is very low. It is noted that indigenous cultures of Latin America previous to 1492 are referred to appropriately as "pre-Columbian," but those of the U.S. and Canada are rather perplexingly grouped as belonging to "prehistory." It would probably not be an exaggeration to say that, in general, U.S. citizens have made far greater efforts to travel throughout the world to see the pyramids, temples, and treasures of Peru, Mexico, and Egypt; the ruins of Ancient Rome and Greece; and the sites in the Holy Land than they have made to visit St. Augustine or the Indian sites in their own states.

Studying the Indigenous Cultures of the United States

The October 1991 issue of *National Geographic* includes an excellent map of the Indians of North America locating archaeological or historical sites, museums of Native American exhibits, and reservations. It is not surprising that the concentrations of these marked locations is greatest in Arizona, New Mexico, and Utah. However, the Eastern Woodlands region covering the area east of the Mississippi River and also west to eastern Texas, Oklahoma, all of Missouri and most of Iowa and Minnesota contains thousands of archaeological or historical mound sites of the "Mound Builders." The following are perhaps the most significant and/or best studied of the mound sites in the South and Southeast: Town Creek Mound, Mt. Gilead, North Carolina; Etowah and Ocmulgee Indian Mounds, Georgia; Moundville (Hale County) Alabama; Poverty Point, Louisiana; Chucalissa, Memphis, Tennessee; Toltec Mounds, Scott, Arkansas; Rock Eagle Effigy Mound, Eatonton, Georgia. The Spiro

Mounds, Spiro, Oklahoma, must be mentioned also though this area is further west. Study of all of these sites reveals that our indigenous groups had many cultural features in common with the Indians of Mesoamerica such as the creation of truncated pyramids/mounds and effigy vessels; the use of snake, jaguar, and bird motifs and symbols; and the practice of body scarring, tattooing, and ritual decapitation. Information on these and other sites are available from state archives, state and local historical societies, universities, and national and state parks in the individual states. [See Appendix for examples.]

Public attention is just now focusing on the indigenous heritage that is already lost or being lost to us. A recent issue of *Archaeology* (May-June, 1991) includes an article on "The Looting of Arkansas." The state was selected as an example of an area in which our past is vanishing because archaeological sites are receiving insufficient study by professionals due to the lack of funding and public understanding of their importance. The result is that private collectors and amateur archaeologists are claiming many of the artifacts under less than ideal circumstances.

Studying Early Spanish Explorations and Settlements of the South and Southeast

Several recent publications, workshops, and commissions have shed new light on early Spanish contacts. Of particular interest are the major expeditions of Juan Ponce de León, Hernando de Soto, and Juan Pardo. Since 1991 marked the 450th anniversary of De Soto's arrival at the Mississippi River, Alabama and Arkansas have both made major studies of De Soto in the last few years; *Alabama Heritage* published a special issue, the Arkansas Archeological Survey put out a brochure, Albornoz wrote a book, and Young and Hoffman collaborated on another. In addition, Hudson published a book on the Juan Pardo expeditions helping confirm information on De Soto. South Carolina's Spanish city at Santa Elena has been detailed by Rowland. The latest evidence and information identifies the Rio Jordán of the 1526 Spanish expedition of Lucas Vásquez de Ayllón as the Santee River (Georgetown area) in South Carolina and not as the Cape Fear River (Southport area) in North Carolina (Judge, 334-45). Most chronicles of the early voyages and expeditions are available in modern-day Spanish and in English translations.

Early mission settlements were abundant in the South and Southeast in the sixteenth century. Although these are not as well known as those in California, New Mexico, Arizona, and Texas, they should not be overlooked, especially in Florida. St. Augustine is famed for its Spanish Quarter's living-history depiction and for the Castillo de San Marcos, one of the finest examples of military architecture in the New World.

Evidence of Hispanic Influence

The Hispanic and indigenous roots of our heritage are around us everywhere. Many national and state museums, parks, archaeological sites, etc., have been mentioned in this study. It remains for each teacher or student to pursue other local and state connections to these cultures of the past and the present. Let us take for example, the many diverse and interesting sites to visit that are found near Wilmington, North Carolina, a city which prides itself in its colonial English and Scotch-Irish origins and does not appear at first glance to have Hispanic and indigenous connections. The North Carolina Museum of Art, the Duke University Museum, and the Mint Museum have already been mentioned along with the Town Creek Mound site. Day trips from Wilmington can be made to any of these places. In addition, we have access to the Wilson Rare Book Library at Chapel Hill and its Flatow Collection of Chronicles including works by Bernal Díaz, Alonso de Ercilla y Zúñiga, Fray Bartolomé de las Casas, the Inca Garcilaso de la Vega, and Alvar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca. The latter landed in Florida in 1528 as part of the doomed Pánfilo de Narváez expedition and later wandered lost for eight years in the South and southwest of the present-day United States before rejoining the Spanish in Mexico.

Just to the north of Wilmington, in the small town of Newton Grove, we can visit the Catholic church of Our Lady of Guadalupe. In Wilmington itself, we can admire St. Mary's Catholic Church designed in the Spanish Baroque Revival style by the Spanish architects Rafael Guastavino, father and son. A few blocks away from St. Mary's in the Parish House of St. James Episcopal Church, we marvel at the *Ecce Homo* painting which was taken from a Spanish pirate ship in 1748 and is thought to be of the Spanish school of Pacheco.

Approximately ninety miles south of Wilmington, we enjoy Brookgreen Gardens, South Carolina, established in the 1930's by Archer Milton Huntington and his wife, the sculptress Anna Hyatt Huntington. Among the many sculptures are featured several on Spanish and Indian subjects, including "The Cid," "Don Quijote," and "Boabdil" by Mrs. Huntington and "The Camouflage" by Lone Wolf. Across the way facing the ocean is the Huntington's Spanish style house "Atalaya."

Conclusion

Archer Milton Huntington is a unique example of someone who loved all things Hispanic and also appreciated our native American heritage. As testimony to his diverse interests, constant industriousness, and philanthropic nature, we have left to us today in New York both the Hispanic Society of America and the Museum of the American Indian.

Few of us have the monetary means either to indulge our interests or to make the cultural contributions of Huntington. However, we have seen, by the many examples cited in this article, that evidence of our Hispanic and Indian heritages are to be found in our midst wherever and whenever we look for them. Opportunities abound for us all to broaden our perspectives in the quincentennial year. It behooves us to follow Huntington's example in pursuing knowledge and doing our part to insure the interests and preservation of the tangible and intangible treasures of our cultural pasts.

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Appendix*

Suggested Readings and Resources

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* A limited selection of dated materials is included as a record of exhibits and conferences during 1991-1992 since publications generated by these activities will remain afterwards. Please note that references cited are not included in this Appendix.

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"Ocmulgee." Brochure on Ocmulgee. Ocmulgee National Monument, Macon, GA 31202.

Native, European, and African Cultures in Mississippi, 1500-1800. Book of essays distributed free of charge to Mississippi teachers of history. Mississippi Department of Archives and History.

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Slides and Videocassettes

"Columbus and the Age of Discovery." 7 videos, 58 min. ea. PBS Series on Columbus. Book: $40,00 (Tel.: 800-441-3000). Videos (Tel.: 800-828-WGBH). Also available from Films for the Humanities; Box 2053, Princeton, NJ 08543-2053.

"Land of the Eagle." Documentary series of eight videos on exploration and colonization of North America. "The Great Encounter," "Confronting the Wilderness," "Conquering the Swamps," "Across the Sea of Grass," "Into the Shining Mountains," "Living on the Edge," "The First and Last Frontier," "Searching for Paradise." Aired on PBS *Nature*, November 24-27, 1991. Produced by Thirteen/WNET in association with BBC/Bristol. Available through Time-Life Video, P.O Box C-32350, Branch No. KHABA2, Richmond, VA 23261. VHS only., approx. $25 each video.

"Spain in the New World." 6 videos, 13 min. ea. "Discovery of America," "Civilizations of Mexico," "Incas," "Conquest of Mexico and Peru," "End of a Culture," "A New world is Born." Films for the Humanities. See address above.

Pictures of Record. Archaeological Slide Sets-1990. (119 Kettle Creek Road, Weston, CT. 06883) Tel.: 203-227-3387; FAX: 203-222-9673.

Museums, Libraries, Special Exhibits, Collections, Conferences, and Programs

"The Age of the Marvelous." North Carolina Museum of Art, Raleigh. Large exhibition in 1992.

Bernard J. Glatow Collection of *Cronistas*. Wilson Library, Rare Book Collection. University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

Brookgreen Gardens. Murrells Inlet, SC. Sculpture garden which includes Hispanic and native American subjects.

The Columbus Caravels. Replicas of the Niña, the Pinta, and the Santa Maria will be in Puerto Rico for New Year's 1992. They will make their 1992 visits to US ports according to the following itinerary: Miami, February 14; Corpus Christi, March 13; Galveston-Houston, March 25; New Orleans, April 3; Tampa, April 10; St. Augustine, April 25; Charleston, May 1; Norfolk, May 8; Balitmore, May 15; Annapolis, May 27; Philadelphia, June 5; Wilmington, DE, June 16; Atlantic City, June 19; New York, June 26; New London-Mystic, CT, July 29; Boston, July 31; San Francisco, October 2; San Luis Obispo, October 30; Los Angeles, November 6; San Juan de Capistrano, December 4; San Diego, December 11.

Duke University Museum of Art. Permanent collection of pre-Columbian art and artifacts. "American Art Before Columbus," September 11-October 25, 1992. Adjunct programs include lecture series, film series, and performing arts events. Also special workshop for pubic school teachers. Indigenous cultures of the New World and issues surrounding the arrival of Europeans, Summer 1992.

"The Expulsion 1492 Conference." An international conference on the expulsion of the Jews from Spain. November 9-11, 1991. Sponsored by the Sephardic Educational Center; 6505 Wilshire Blvd. Suite 403; Los Angeles, CA 90048.

"First Encounters." Exhibit at Southwest Museum of Science and Technology in Dallas, TX. Until January 23, 1992. Small-scale traveling version scheduled for Hernando (in De Soto County), Ms, in 1991 and for State Historical Museum in Jackson, MS, in Winter 1991-92.

"The Gold of El Dorado." Traveling exhibit of the Mississippi Department of Archives and History.

Hampson Museum State Park, Wilson, Arkansas. Exhibits examine village life, work tools, weapons, pottery art, ceremonial items, toys, and trade territories of the Mississippian Mound Builders.

Hispanic Society of America, 613 W. 155th St., New York, NY 10032. Special exhibition: "Maps, Charts, and Globes: Five Centuries of Exploration." February 26-May 8, 1992.

"Jews and the Encounter with the New World, 1492-1992." A series of public programs, University of Michigan in Ann Arbor (Center for Judaic Studies). October 1991, March-December 1992.

Mint Museum of Art. Permanent collection of pre-Columbian art and artifacts. Special exhibit: "Splendors of the New World," February 1-April 26, 1992. (Spanish Colonial Masterworks from the Viceroyalty of Peru.)

Museum of the American Indian. Broadway at 155th St., New York, NY 10032.

"Native Peoples of New York," with "Three Sisters" diorama which reconstructs Iroquois cornfield of 500 years ago. Exhibit, New York State Museum, Albany, NY.

Nettie Lee Bentson Latin American Collection. University of Texas at Austin.

The North Carolina Indian Cultural Center, Inc. P.O. Box 2410, Pembroke, NC 28732. Phone: 919-521-2433.

Pembroke State University. Collections and Resources. Pembroke, NC

"Pre-Columbian Masks of the Americas." North Carolina Museum of Art, Raleigh. May 19-July 26, 1992.

Rankin Museum of American Heritage. Woodland period collection of Pee Dee artifacts from Richmond County. PO Box 499, Ellerbe, NC 28338. Phone: 919-652-6378.

"Seeds of Change" Exhibition of the Smithsonian Institution. National Museum of Natural History, Washington, DC, October 26, 1991-April, 1993. Traveling exhibit with same title scheduled for selected cities and towns. [See book above by Viola and Margolis.]

"Spiro Mounds." Traveling exhibit by University of Oklahoma.

"Symposium: The De Soto Expedition in Caddo County." University of Arkansas, Fayetteville. March 28-30, 1991.

Texas. Museums and festivals too numerous to list. Significant cities and sites include: Caddoan Mound State Historical Park at Alto, TX; Goliad State Historical Park at Goliad, TX; the cities of El Paso, Corpus Christi, Laredo, Brownsville, San Antonio, and Austin.

Town Creek Indian Mound. NC Historical Site. Museum and reconstructions. Teacher's packet available for $3. Rt. 3, Box 50, Mt. Gilead, NC 27306. Phone: 919-439-6802. Classes welcome.

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América 92. Revista del Quinto Centenario. Madrid.

Americana. October 1991 issue intiates special section dedicated to the Quincentennial.

Américas. Publication of the Organization of American States, Washington, DC. English and Spanish editions.

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Encounters. Latin American Institute, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque. Spanish and English editions.

Materiales Quinto Centenario. Special series published by the Office of Education of the Spanish Embassy. 1350 Connecticut Ave., NW, Suite 1050, Washington, DC, 20036.

National Geographic. Will have several special editions in 1992.

Quincentennial. Bilingual publication of the OAS, Washington, D.C.

Smithsonian Institution News. June 1991. Announces thirty programs to commemorate the Quincentenary of Columbus. Office of Public Affairs, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC 20560.

7

Video in the Foreign Language Classroom: Using Commercials

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Advertising is an integral part of our social and economic system. Myriads of messages are directed to the public each year by businesses through advertising in a variety of media: television, magazines, newspapers, billboards, radio, etc. Advertising is a form of communication that dominates our daily lives. Often we are unaware of its more subtle forms of persuasion and the degree to which it manipulates our lives. It permeates our environment to such an extent that it even perpetuates ideas and influences our value system. Advertisers want us to purchase things, use them, throw them away, and start a new cycle of buying. How do they achieve that goal?

Although advertisements are primarily used for the communication of basic information, they must be more than educational to be successful. They must be so persuasive that they move people to action, i.e., to purchase the advertised product. Advertising, therefore, is always subtle and is generally targeted at a certain segment of the population of consumers.

What can we educators learn from these objectives from advertising? In the simplest sense, advertising means "to draw attention to." We as teachers are trying to attract the interest of our students to the product we want to sell: the knowledge of our language, be it French, German, Spanish, or any other language. In order to get our students' attention, let us apply some of the techniques developed by the advertising industry to the classroom and use this method in selling "our product." Let us use commercials in the classroom to attract our students' interest. Just as we are unconsciously manipulated by business to reach out for a certain product, we can exert influence on and encourage our students to use the target language in the classroom through similar techniques. Let advertising work for us, too. In the foreign language classroom we can use commercials to elicit responses from our students, or make the messages themselves the object of our linguistic exercises.

Every day in the various media we hear, see, and read many advertisements. Students are familiar with their images and their slogans that often enter our language, either for a limited time period or indefinitely, just as biblical or literary expressions were absorbed into the language by our forbears. Television commercials especially have a great visual and emotional impact upon the young viewer. Experience has shown that work with TV commercials in class will easily attract the attention of our students.

The use of commercials in the foreign language class has several advantages. (1) Students are familiar with advertising and are usually very interested in this genre. (2) The segments are generally short and offer a great deal of nonverbal cultural information which can be used as a starting point for the discussion of the foreign culture as well as of cultural differences between home and abroad. (3) Commercials frequently use elements of everyday language and even a vocabulary that may take years to appear in textbooks. (4) Frequently the verbal information on the screen helps the student understand the commercial and enrich vocabulary. The instructor can pause the video to point our background visuals or written information. (5) Messages also lend themselves to a great number of possible exercises for comprehension, speaking, and writing that instructors can tailor to the individual needs of their classes.

Since language is our business, let us take a quick look at the language of advertising. A word of caution is in order. Since a commercial vies for our attention by all possible means, it can be unusual and contain controversial statements, puns, and new words. Advertisers also break grammatical rules at times. The language contains many imperatives, slogans, alliteration, short statements, repetitions, rhymes, or rhythmically exciting songs. At times every foreign words are used, as Volkswagen does in its ad with *Fahrvergnügen*. Foreign accents are used to stress foreignness when a foreign product, for example French cheese, is the object. Repetitions in commercials will help students retain vocabulary. In that respect, ads are well-suited for the classroom.[1]

During the instructional unit that analyzes the content of commercial messages, the instructor should not forget to discuss with the class the principles that govern the advertising language. As a matter of fact, with more advanced students, an analysis of commercials and the principles that market research has established for the creation of commercial messages will provide the learner not only with linguistic information but also with insight into the importance of communication in industry and will teach the foreign language learner much about the function and power of the spoken and written word. One class session might be devoted to setting up guidelines regarding the creation of television commercial with the students. In his recent book, *Advertising That Works*, Fearon mentions that he tested 900 commercials over a two-year period between 1988 and 1990 and found several elements that work to get a commercial noticed: humor, a happy or an upbeat tone, a cute little child, baby, or puppy, an ongoing character, a celebrity. (The person's name must be mentioned in the commercial).

With more advanced students, content analysis of commercials in the foreign language and the creation of a commercial in the target language might be challenging teaching units. In his book entitled *Advertising*, Mandell presents a checklist for creating effective TV commercials that could be useful for creating a commercial in the foreign language classroom. Depending on the time an instructor can devote to this project, the students can set up their own guidelines. Among others, Mandell names the following criteria a scriptwriter should keep in mind:

- The opening should be pertinent, relevant, and not forced.
- The situation should lend itself naturally to the sales story.
- The sitation should be high in human interest.
- The viewer should be able to identify with the situation.
- The number of elements should be held to a minimum.
- The sequence of ideas should be kept simple.
- The words should be short, realistic, and conversational. Sentences should be short.
- Words should not be wasted describing what is being seen.
- The word should interpret the picture and prepare the viewer for the next scene.
- Audio and video should be synchronized.
- Sixty-second commercials with 100 to 110 words are most effective.
- Five or six seconds should be allowed for the average scene, with none less than three seconds.
- Enough movement should be provided to avoid static scenes.
- Scenes should offer variety without "jumping."
- The commercial should look fresh and new.

The writing of a commercial is an exercise not only for the advanced students, but (with adaptation) for any level, even beginners. A procedure that students might follow in writing their own script for a commercial could be to

1. choose a product and give it a name.
2. determine the tone of voice adequate for this spot.
3. describe the effect a pun, alliteration, or other linguistic device would have.
4. decide what linguistic form the commercial should have: monologue, dialogue, or lyrics.
5. decide whether the language should support the image or the image be the most important message
6. discuss whether the image and the language would appeal to the target group.

Addressing these points goes beyond the teaching of language skills. In addition to the linguistic exercise, we can have students think critically about price, function, quality, etc., of a product and help them make wise and rational decisions as consumers.

A TV commercial contains messages in two forms: image and sound (music or language). Sometimes one is more important, sometimes the other; both attempt to attract our attention. The criteria for choosing a commercial suitable for beginning or intermediate students are necessarily different from those for more advanced learners. Each instructor must set his or her own objectives according to the age and interest of the target group. An advertisement in the foreign language for a product known by all is most popular among learners, because the students can easily relate to it. However, it is not always possible to find commercials in the foreign language that students already know. Humor is another important criterion and can be communicated through the visual image or the linguistic message.

Since we are not using the commercial for the promotion of the product but only as a vehicle to elicit a response, the instructor must choose commercials with a certain linguistic activity in mind. If the image is very persuasive and the text is only of secondary importance, we concentrate on the visual information (or vice versa), but the main objective remains: it must lend itself to a transformation into language, or act as a stimulus to linguistic activity.

The interview that attempts to influence the consumer to identify with the person on the screen is one popular method of selling a product. The interior monologue is another technique that invites the buyer to see the product favorably through the eyes of the person in the advertisement. These types of commercials can be used advantageously for role play or for the creation of re-creation of dialogues in the classroom and written follow-up exercises as homework. In the following outline I suggest several ways how an instructor might make use of commercials in order to practice each of the language skills:

I. Listening Comprehension
Guess the continuation of a scene. Play the beginning of a video with (or without) sound and let the students guess the product. (The guessing can also be done with English commercials that are shown without sound).

II. Oral Work
  A. Describe a scene.
  B. Create dialogues, individually or in groups and compare them.
  C. Role play.
  D. Compare target-language and English commercials. Discuss, for example, advertising in society, the portrayal of women in commercials.

III. Vocabulary Building
  A. Describe the objects or activities shown.
  B. Play games: Who can name the largest number of objects (with article/plural) or verbs (with principal parts)?

IV. Written Work
  A. Write the description of a scene.
  B. Invent a script for a commercial seen without sound and write it.
  C. Develop written grammatical exercises.
    1. Use advertisements in magazines and compose written fill-in exercises.
    2. Practice grammatical structures that occurred in the script, e.g., superlatives, or wishes.
  D. Use the script of a commercial to compose fill-ins.

V. Further Exercises
  A. Compare cultural information.
  B. Compare a TV spot with a printed advertisement.
  C. Invent a commercial for a product of the students' own choice. Write a script individually or in groups.
  D. Use a commercial in magazines for vocabulary building and for reinforcement.

This outline lists suggestions for the use of commercials according to language skills. Each instructor must evaluate the commercial to be used and determine what specific skills he or she wants to emphasize. Many commercials can be used with multiple objectives in mind, and several of the above-mentioned suggestions can also be carried out by using commercials in the native language with the sound cut off, so that the image alone elicits a language response.

The increased availability of video equipment in the schools and colleges presents new opportunities for the foreign language teacher. New programs and material are constantly appearing on the market. Commercials are but one modest possibility.

Notes

1. For the German teacher who wants to motivate his or her students by bringing video into the classroom, the Goethe Institutes are an invaluable source for materials. Their publicaton, *Treffpunkt Deutsch*, is specifically aimed at the German teacher in the US and offers information, ideas, and advice to the instructor for integrating video materials into the foreign langauge class.

Resources

Arnsdorf, Dieter, Jürgen Schweckendiek, and Sabine Wolf. *21 Werbespots als Sprechanlass*. Munich: Goethe Institute, 1988. Booklet with practical suggestions on how to integrate the spots. A new collection of commercials will appear soon.

Die Krönung der schönsten Stunden will be available soon for rental from Modern Talking Picture Service, Tel. 1-800-243-68771. German Television Commercials, vol. 1 + 2, $99 each.

German TV Commericals, Gessler Publishing Company, 55 West 13th Street, New York, NY 10011.

Foreign Languages and Classics on Video, Insight Media, 121 West 85th Street, New York, NY 10024. Tel. 212/721-6312. Fax. 212/799-5309. Goethe-Institut Atlanta, 400 Colony Square, Street Level, Atlanta, GA 30361-2401, Tel. 404/892-2388.

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Appendix

Sample Exercises for German Commercials:

I. Grammatikübung:

Guten Abend, ich bin ein Tippfehler. Ich bin leicht zu machen, aber schwer wieder wegzumachen. Radiergummis rubbeln mich weg, aber auch ein Loch ins Papier. Korrekturflüssigkeit deckt mich zu, aber man sieht immer noch, wo ich vorher war. Es soll Schreibmaschinen geben, die eine Korrekturtaste haben und Tippfehler wie mich einfach wieder wegtippen..... Aber das ist sicher nichts als Werbung. Die IBM Schreibmaschine 96C mit der Korrekturtaste. Rufen Sie die IBM einfach an.

1. Suchen Sie die trennbaren Verben aus diesem Text. (wegmachen, wegrubbeln, wegtippen, anrufen)
2. Geben Sie die Stammformen an. (wegmachen, macht weg, machte weg, hat weggemacht, etc.)
3. Gibt es andere Präfixe? Geben Sie Beispiele. (An der Tafel Verben sammeln, z.B. aufschreiben, mitschreiben, verbessern, erzählen, etc.)
4. Teilen Sie die Verben in zwei Gruppen ein. Tafelbild: trennbare Vorsilben - untrennbare Vorsilben.
5. Bilden Sie Sätze mit den an der Tafel gesammelten Verben.
6. Möglichkeiten für Hausaufgaben: Sätze bilden, übung im Lehrbuch, Text ins Imperfekt und Perfekt setzen.

II. Übung zur Landeskunde:
Werbespot der Bundesbahn:

1. Anfang des Viedos zeigen. Beschreiben Sie, was Sie gesehen haben. (Autobahn, Menschen in Autos, Staus und Autoschlangen)
2. Was wollen diese Leute machen? (Sie wollen reisen/in Urlaub fahren/ in die Ferien fahren).
3. Ganzen Werbespot Zeigen.
4. Wohin wollen die Leute fahren? (ins Ausland, an die See, nach Italien, etc.)
5. Jedes Auto hat einen Buchstaben vor der Nummer. Was bedeuten diese Buchstaben? (Deutsches System erklären).
6. Welche Buchstaben haben Sie gesehen? (HH, M, D, F, etc.).
7. Was bedeuten diese Buchstaben? (HH - Hamburg, D - Düsseldorf, F - Frankfurt...)

8. Wo liegen diese Städte? (Karte austeilen und nachsehen. Weitere Buchstaben anschreiben und Städte identifizieren. Die 5 neuen Bundesländer erwähnen. Wie heißen sie?) Andere wichtige Abkürzungen erwähnen, z.B. D=Deutschland, CH=Schweiz, A=Österreich, etc. Abkürzungen für andere Länder raten lassen oder solche, die für Reisende wichtig sind, wie z.B. BRD, Hbf., Bhf., DB, DM).
9. Wie machen Sie Urlaub? Wohin fahren Sie? Wohin würden Sie gern fahren? (Gesprächsphase. Verschiedene Satzmuster üben, z.B. Ich möchte/Ich würden gern nach *xyz* fahren.)
10. Vergleichen Sie die BRD und die USA. Wie sieht es während der Urlaubssaison bei Ihnen zu Hause aus?
11. Möglichkeiten für Hausaufgaben:
    a. Aufsatz: Wohin würden sie gern fahren und warum?
    b. Karte vorbereiten und 10 Städteabkürzungen geben, die die Studenten identifizieren müssen.
    c. Lükentext zu den Präpositionen ausgeben. (Ich fahre ___ die Berge, ___ Meer, ___ Paris, etc.)

8

Student Attitudes about the Study of Foreign Languages: Report of a Study

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- "I don't know why I'm bothering to even try to learn a foreign language. I'll never be able to speak like a native."
- "Why can't my Spanish teacher teach like all my other teachers?"
- "When I'm in German class, I can never answer anything correctly."
- "Why do we have to learn another language anyway?"

Almost all foreign language teachers have heard statements similar to these at one time or another and have wondered if their students would continue second language study. For some students, the study of a second language and culture can be a wonderful learning experience, while for others the process can produce nothing but severe anxiety and tension. What then prevents some from succeeding in their goal to achieve second language proficiency? In some cases, it may be how students feel about various aspects of the foreign language curriculum and instructional process and/or negative ideas, expectations, or attitudes that students may hold toward the target language, people, and culture (Horwitz). Just as anxiety, tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry prevent some from successfully learning calculus, many students find learning a second language--especially in the classroom situation--particularly stressful and, to some degree, irrelevant (Morello; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope). Guiroa (8) states that language learning itself is "a profoundly unsettling psychological proposition because it directly threatens an individual's self-concept and worldview." However, opinions and attitudes must be analyzed and changed since, according to Bloom, they play an important part in determining any student's success in school.

In the last two decades, research on student attitudes toward learning a second language has been well documented in the professional literature. Two variables of student attitudes dominate--integrative and instrumental motivation. Gardner and Lambert have defined integrative motivation to language learning as an intense desire of a student to acquire the language of a valued target area to communicate with that group. There have been other studies on this type of motivation that reach similar conclusions regarding its importance to foreign language study (Gardner, Smyth, Clement, & Glicksman; Oller, Hudson, & Liu; Chihara & Oller; Stone & Rubenfeld).

The second type of motivation that affects attitude is instrumental motivation, which is defined as a desire to acquire a second language for practical reasons such as promotion in a job to further one's own economic success. Instrumental motivation is discussed in studies by Gardner and Lambert in the Phillipines; Harrison, Prator, and Tucker in Jordan; and Lukmani in India. Additional variables affecting second language acquisition, such as language environment, target language models, personality factors, and reinforcement are discussed in Dulay, Burt, and Krashen. Ageyishi and Fishman also describe language attitude studies and find that such research entails the analysis of any of the following:

1. subjective evaluation of a particular language,
2. community-wide stereotyping of a given language and/or its speakers, or
3. behavior toward a language resulting from specific attitudes or beliefs.

However, a common thread in all the research indicates a consistent relationship between attitude and motivation and learning a foreign language. These factors include:

1. what one believes about the foreign language,
2. the degree to which one feels positive or negative toward it, and
3. the behavior manifested toward it.

The objective of this paper is to develop a general descriptive profile of student opinion which will be useful to classroom teachers for three basic reasons:

1. to find out how students feel about the foreign language curriculum,
2. to change, if necessary, certain aspects of the instructional process, and
3. to correct negative attitudes students may have toward the target language and culture.

To gather information about the interest, or lack thereof, of American students studying a foreign language, one should survey student opinion. How do students feel about the classroom language environment and the various aspects of the curriculum? What are their attitudes toward the language and the people who speak it? Such an evaluation process can be particularly advantageous to the instructor who wants to develop a new foreign language course or improve an already established one (Richleux; Remage).

Methods and Procedures

This investigation was conducted by polling 70 East Central Florida high school students who were enrolled in either the first, second, third, or fourth year of a foreign language class to find out their attitudes toward learning a second language. The questionnaire, (see Appendix) "The Foreign Language Attitude Survey," was developed by the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (Jakobovits). It was distributed to students toward the end of the spring semester, 1991, in three sections of English classes where the atmosphere was such that students could answer freely. The anonymity of each respondent was assured. Students were also told that their foreign language instructors would not receive individual responses.

A Likert scale was used as the method for determining attitudes. Students were asked to indicate their reactions to a series of 31 questions using three numbers: 3 = very important/quite satisfied/great interest/very much in favor, 2 = slightly important/fairly satisfied/some interest/slightly in favor, and 1 = unimportant/dissatisfied/very little interest/not in favor. Students were also asked a number of yes/no questions. Questions were constructed to ascertain the students'

1. foreign language and ethnic-linguistic background,
2. reason for selecting the foreign language being studied,
3. expectations of foreign language study,
4. feedback concerning specific aspects of the instructional process,
5. personal involvement (motivation) in foreign language study, and
6. feelings of alienation.

Results

The purpose of this study is to formulate a general profile of student attitudes toward learning foreign languages. The results are representative of this sample of students and may not be generalizable to a broader population. A statistical analysis and an interpretation of the responses are beyond the scope of this paper. This purely descriptive study is the kind of research that can be easily carried out by classroom teachers to give them a clearer picture of their own students' attitudes and opinions.

The first section of the questionnaire dealt with the respondents' foreign language background. Thirteen percent were enrolled in first year foreign language classes, 78% in second year, 3% in third year, and 6% in fourth year classes. The majority of students, 58%, were studying Spanish; 18% were studying Latin, 16% were studying French, and 8% were studying German. Eighty-six percent reported that they had never studied a foreign language outside of school, i.e., none had ever lived abroad, attended a language camp, or come into contact with a foreign language in the home. A high percentage of students, 83%, also had no personal contact with anyone who spoke a language other than English.

Several questions elicited information concerning the choice of the foreign language being studied. Seventy-two percent of the students indicated that they were "influenced" by college entrance requirements as a reason for studying a foreign language. Only 34% of the students said that their parents were instrumental in influencing them to study a foreign language. It would seem, therefore, that almost three-fourths of the students surveyed had an instrumental type of motivation for enrolling in a foreign language class, that is, to satisfy college entrance requirements. The most popular reasons for studying a specific foreign language were that the language selected seemed of great importance in today's world (46%), and that language study would enrich the student's background and broaden his or her cultural horizons (39%).

Students also rated the foreign language skill in which they had the most interest. The highest percentage, 37%, noted "great interest" and 40% indicated "some interest" in wanting to engage in an everyday conversation. Thirty-three percent were most interest in foreign language courses emphasizing being able to write letters for various purposes (e.g., business or social).

Students were able to give feedback concerning the instructional process in their foreign language classes. They appeared to be "quite satisfied" with

1. the way their progress was evaluated (46%),
2. the teacher's personality (68%),
3. the teacher's ability to speak the language (83%),
4. the teacher's ability to help the students (55%), and
5. the teacher's availability for consultation outside the regular classroom hour (55%).

Respondents also reported that they were "fairly satisfied" with

1. the type of skills that they were taught (52%),
2. the text used (54%),
3. classroom activities (42%),
4. language lab, if available, (57%),
5. assigned homework (57%), and
6. assigned reading (68%).

Almost half (46%) of the students indicated that they were "least satisfied" with the outside opportunities to practice the language.

Part of the questionnaire not only tapped sources of motivation but also revealed the reasons for the motivation (Table 1).

Only 38% described their study of foreign language as "very enjoyable" while 43% indicated that their study was "slightly enjoyable." A high percentage of the students felt at ease when making use of the skills that they learned in a foreign language:

1. in listening (58%),
2. in speaking (40%),
3. in reading (66%), and
4. in writing (52%).

Most (71%) did not agree with the statement that to be good in a foreign language one must have a special talent for it. On a scale of "0" (not at all, never) to "5" (very much so, all the time), one fourth of the students rated themselves as feeling uneasy or afraid to make mistakes when trying to speak the foreign language being studied and slightly over half blamed themselves and not their teachers for feeling this way.

Agreement with several statements at the end of the questionnaire indicated the presence of anomie--a feeling of doubt, conflict, and resistance in learning a second language. Surprisingly, the highest percentage (30-50%) of students had "no opinion" concerning these statements which were of a more personal nature. For example, one statement asked the students to rate their degree of agreement with the comment that since studying a foreign language, they had discovered that

Table 1.

Reasons for Motivation

	Very much so	**Yes**	**Maybe**
Do you wish you could speak a foreign language like a native speaker?	37%	48%	15%

	Definitely	**Maybe**	**No**
If you had to stay in another country for an extended period of time, would you make a great effort to learn the language spoken there, even though you could get along in English?	57%	39%	4%

	Extremely Important	**Important**	**Not so Important**
How important is it for Americans to learn foreign languages?	32%	57%	11%

	Definitely Yes	**Yes**	**Not sure**
Would you say that the time you have spent in studying a foreign language has been beneficial to you?	33%	52%	15%

	Extremely Important	**Important**	**Not so Important**
In your judgment, to what extent do the following people consider foreign language study important:			
Your parents	25%	45%	30%
Your friends	4%	45%	51%
Your high-school teachers other than the foreign-language teacher	29%	51%	20%
Society as a whole	14%	58%	28%
Yourself	55%	32%	13%
To what extent are you in favor of the following:			
Beginning the study of a foreign language in elementary school	52%	31%	17%
Having four years of foreign language study in high school	29%	42%	19%
Eliminating the teaching of foreign languages in American schools	0%	6%	94%

some aspects of American culture were not as good as they had previously thought. Perhaps the reason for so many students to have indicated "no opinion" was that to rate any degree of disagreement concerning the "appropriateness" about one's own culture may have been viewed by some respondents as being unamerican.

Future Research

There was no effort in this study to include a statistical or interpretive analysis of the responses cited here, but rather an attempt to begin to identify discrete beliefs and opinions held by some American foreign language students. Although the results suggest a relatively positive attitude toward language study, more in-depth research is needed. It would be interesting to compare responses according to the level and number of years of the languages being studied and/or to compare different sections of the same language when taught by the same instructor but by different instructional procedures.

Conclusion

Polling student opinion of foreign language study should help teachers to

1. find out how students really feel about various aspects of the foreign language curriculum,
2. change aspects of the instructional process to the extent that these are pedagogically feasible and desirable, and
3. help correct fallacious ideas, unrealistic expectations, or negative attitudes that students may hold (Jakobovits, 2).

Although the questionnaire, according to the Board of Directors of the Northeast Conference, is "not to be construed as a standardized test" (Jakobovits, 1), the data can be used to ascertain a classroom profile of attitudes that students have toward the study of a foreign language.

The responses from these 70 students indicate a relatively pragmatic and favorable attitude toward studying a foreign language. Even though most were influenced to take the foreign language because of a college entrance requirement, some students also stated that they selected a foreign language that they felt would enrich their cultural background. They recognized the benefits of foreign language study and felt that everyone should be exposed to a foreign language at an early age during the educational process. It seems that foreign language teachers have been successful in attempting to educate students in the benefits of foreign language study in today's multicultural society.

Students also felt fairly satisfied with the foreign language curriculum and instruction (type of skills taught, text, lab facilities, assignments, and time allotted for study). They were very satisfied with the evaluation process of foreign language skills and seemed to notice and appreciate the foreign language teacher's dedication to the profession. There also seems to be a desire on the part of the student to have more input into content and pedagogy of foreign language courses, as well as more opportunity to discuss the target culture in the foreign language and to interact with native speakers. As Wilga Rivers (1972) states, students would like more opportunity to go from skill-getting to skill-using. They want more opportunity to practice what they have already learned.

The results of the survey only present a small "slice" of student opinion. To say that the 70 subjects polled are representative of all students studying a foreign language would be misleading. However, such classroom-teacher research, as this survey represents, gives teachers a preliminary glimpse into the minds of their students. Such research helps all of us as teachers to better understand our students' beliefs in foreign language learning and helps us to foster more effective language learning strategies. As Rivers so wisely advises, we "must look with our students' eyes at the way our curriculum appears to them" (1985, 42). The findings also show that students, if given an opportunity to reflect on their own learning experience, do have definite opinions with regard to foreign language study and that these factors influence their attitudes toward what happens in the classroom situation. Polling student opinion forces teachers to reassess their own pedagogy and reaffirms the importance of attitudes as one of the most significant variables in foreign language learning.

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Appendix

Foreign Language Attitude Questionnaire

Instructions: This is not a test. Your grades will in no way be affected by your answers and you need not put your name on this form. This questionnaire has been designed to find out from you how students feel about foreign language study. Your teacher is honestly interested in providing a foreign language curriculum of the highest quality and one kind of information what would help him would be an honest expression of student opinion on this matter. If you fail to express your true feelings, you are evading the responsibility you have towards yourself, your fellow-students, and the school as a whole. This is your chance to "tell it like it is" in your own mind.

Circle the appropriate information.

Present Level or Year of Study .... FLES
1 2 3 4 5 6 .... Middle
.... JuniorHigh
.... Senior High
.... College
.... Graduate

1. Which foreign language(s) are you studying now (or have you studied in the past) in school?

   __________ __________ __________

2. Have you ever studied a language other than English outside school?
   Yes ____ No ____
   If "Yes," which language(s) and under what circumstances (e.g., while living abroad, in a "language camp," at home, through TV)?

   ____

3. Do you personally know anyone (other than your language teacher) who can speak a language other than English?
   Yes ____ No ____
   If "Yes," please specify your relationship to that person (e.g., grandfather, friend, neighbor):

   ____

4. Indicate whether or not each of the following influenced you in the choice of the foreign language you are studying:

a. your parents Yes ____ No ____
b. your friends Yes ____ No ____
c. your high-school teacher Yes ____ No ____
d. your high-school counselor Yes ____ No ____
e. someone else (please specify) Yes ____ No ____
f. college entrance requirement Yes ____ No ____

5. What were your reasons for choosing the foreign language you are studying? For each item listed below, rate the importance it had for you by circling one of the three numbers as follows:

3 - Very important 2 - Slightly important 1 - Unimportant

a. There was no other language available for study:
True ____ False ____
[Note: if you check "True," skip to question 6.]

b. This language is prettier (sounds better, is more musical, etc.) than others I could have taken:
3 2 1
c. This language seemed easier than others I could have taken:
3 2 1
d. This language seemed of great importance in today's world:
3 2 1
e. This language will probably be useful in getting a good job some day:
3 2 1
f. This language will be useful in my probable field of study (e.g., medicine, law, graduate work):
3 2 1
g. I want to visit the country where the language is spoken:
3 2 1
h. I want to understand better the people who speak this language and their way of life:
3 2 1
i. This language will enrich my background and broaden my cultural horizons:
3 2 1
j. This language is (or was at one time) spoken by my relatives or persons who are (or were) close to me:
3 2 1
k. Knowledge of this language will add to my social status:
3 2 1
l. Any other reason? Please state briefly:
____

6. The following are various skills that a foreign language course can emphasize. Rate the extent to which you are interested in each of them by circling one of the three numbers as follows:

3 - Great interest   2 - Some interest   1 - Very little interest

a. being able to engage in an everyday conversation with native speakers of this language:
3   2   1
b. being able to listen to news broadcasts in this language:
3   2   1
c. being able to enjoy films in the original language:
3   2   1
d. being able to read the classical literature in this language:
3   2   1
e. being able to read the current literature in this language (e.g., business, social):
3   2   1
f. being able to write letters in this language for various purposes (e.g., business, social):
3   2   1
g. being able to write stories, articles, etc., in this language:
3   2   1
h. any others? ______________________________
____

7. Indicate the extent to which you are satisfied with each of the following aspects of your foreign language courses by circling one of the three numbers as follows:

3 - Quite satisfied   2 - Fairly satisfied   1 - Dissatisfied

a. the type of skills you were taught in the course:
3   2   1
b. the textbooks you have used:
3   2   1
c. the classroom activities:
3   2   1
d. the language laboratory (leave blank if there is no language laboratory in your school):
3   2   1
e. the homework you were assigned:
3   2   1

f. the readings you were assigned:
3 2 1

g. the outside opportunities you have had to practice the language (e.g., conversing with native speakers, listening to radio broadcasts, reading magazines):
3 2 1

h. the information you received from your teacher as to how you were progressing in the language course:
3 2 1

i. the way your progress and achievement were evaluated (e.g., grades):
3 2 1

j. the overall amount of time you were given for study:
3 2 1

k. the teacher's personality:
3 2 1

l. the teacher's ability to speak the language:
3 2 1

m. the teacher's ability to help you learn (his helpfulness):
3 2 1

n. the teacher's availability for consultation outside the regular classroom hour:
3 2 1

o. any other aspects of the course for which you wish to indicate your satisfaction or dissatisfaction (please specify):
____

8. Do you feel the teacher placed too much emphasis on speaking correctly at all times?
Yes ____ No ____

9. Would you have found it helpful to be able to use the language more to express your thoughts even if it meant speaking incorrectly?
Yes ____ No ____ Can't say ____

10. Do you think it's necessary to be able to speak a language correctly (pronunciation, grammar) in order to be able to communicate in that language?
Yes ____ No ____ No opinion ____

11. Do you think students should have a greater say in the content and method of courses in mathematics or the sciences?
Yes ____ No ____ No opinion ____

12. Do you think students should have a greater say in the content and method of foreign language courses?
Yes ____ No ____ No opinion ____

13. Would you have liked to spend more time discussing the culture of the people whose language your were studying? Discussions in the foreign language:
Yes ____ No ____ No opinion ____

14. Could you have accomplished more if the foreign language you took had been organized in a different way?
Yes ____ No ____ No opinion ____
If "Yes," describe briefly the suggestions you have (e.g., more or less structure in class, more or less explanation of grammar, more or fewer drills, more or less use of English):
____
____

15. Do you wish you could speak a foreign language like a native speaker?
Very much so ____ Yes ____ Maybe ____

16. If you had to stay in another country for an extended period of time, would you make a great effort to learn the language spoken there even though you could get along in English?
Definitely ____ Maybe ____ No ____

17. How important is it for Americans to learn foreign languages?
Extremely important ____ Important ____
Not so important ____

18. Would you say that the time you have spent in studying a foreign language has been beneficial to you?
Definitely yes ____ Yes ____ Not sure ____

19. In your judgment, to what extent do the following people consider foreign langage study important:

3 - Extremely important 2 - Important 1 - Not so important

a. your parents:
3 2 1
b. your friends:
3 2 1

c. your high-school teachers other than the foreign-language teacher:
3 2 1
d. society as a whole:
3 2 1
e. yourself:
3 2 1

20. To what extent are you in favor of the following? In each case, circle one of the three numbers:
3 - Very much in favor 2 - Slightly in favor 1 - Not in favor

a. beginning the study of a foreign language in elementary school:
3 2 1
b. having four years of foreign-language study in American schools:
3 2 1
c. eliminating the teaching of foreign languages in American schools:
3 2 1
d. requiring that everyone take a foreign language at some time during his schooling:
3 2 1

21. Would you consider going abroad to increase your skills in the use of a foreign language?
Definitely ____ Maybe ____ No ____

22. How enjoyable do you find the study of a foreign language?
Very enjoyable ____ Slightly enjoyable ____
Not enjoyable ____

23. Do you feel at ease when making use of the skills you are learning (or have learned) in a foreign language?
a. in listening: Yes ____ No ____ Not sure ____
b. in speaking: Yes ____ No ____ Not sure ____
c. in reading: Yes ____ No ____ Not sure ____
d. in writing: Yes ____ No ____ Not sure ____

24. Do you agree with the idea that to be good in a foreign language one must have a special talent for it?
Yes ________ No _______ Don't know _______

If "Yes," how much of this special talent do you think you have?

Above average ____ Average ____
Below average ____ Don't know ____

25. Do you feel that a lack of this special talent prevents you from getting anything out of foreign-language study?
Yes ____ No ____ Not applicable ____

26. How probable is it, do you think, that you will one day be a fluent speaker of a second language? Place a number "0" (completely improbable) to "5" (completely probable) to indicate your estimate:
______

27. Some people feel uneasy, or are afraid to make mistakes, or to sound ridiculous when they try to speak a foreign language they are studying. Rate the extent to which you tend to feel this way yourself: "0" (not at all, never) to "5" (very much so, all the time):
______

28. In these situations, whom do you blame for your uneasiness? Check all those that apply to you:
a. ____ mostly yourself d. ____ don't know
b. ____ mostly the teacher
c. ____ mostly the other students in the class

29. Our lack of knowledge of foreign languages accounts for many of our political difficulties abroad:
4 3 2 1 0

30. A whole-hearted commitment to the study of a foreign language and the culture of its people endangers one's own cultural identity:
4 3 2 1 0

31. a. Through my exposure to the foreign culture of the language I am studying, I have discovered that some aspects of American culture are not as good as I had previously thought:
4 3 2 1 0
b. This realization has caused me concern and worry:
4 3 2 1 0
c. This realization has interfered with my progress in the study of that language:
4 3 2 1 0
d. Because of the possibility of such conflict, it would be better if foreign-language courses concentrated on the language itself rather than the culture of the people who speak it:
4 3 2 1 0

9

A Comparison of Student Performance in Partial Immersion and FLES Programs

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North Carolina's Basic Education Plan (BEP) was an eight-year funding package to provide schools with funds to expand programs, to provide additional support services, and to reduce class size. Funding began in the 1984-85 school year. Program expansion was outlined in the *North Carolina Standard Course of Study*. One instructional area which was greatly changed was the study of foreign languages. The *Standard Course of Study* mandated that students study a second language in grades K-5 and have the opportunity to study that language in grades 6-12. At least one language must be available on a K-12 continuum, but several languages may be offered when resources are sufficient.

Gates County Schools began a partial French immersion program in fall 1988 as an innovative outgrowth of the North Carolina mandate to teach foreign language in the elementary schools. Approximately 50% of the parents at those grade levels volunteered their children to participate. The optional program started with 32 second graders at Sunbury Elementary School and 31 first graders at Buckland Elementary School.

In 1988-89 the regular curriculum was taught in French for one-half day and in English for the other half day in grades one and two at the respective schools. Language arts and reading were taught in English during the non-immersion half-day. Science, social studies, and math were taught in French. The *North Carolina Standard Course of Study* was the curriculum used. Students who elected not to participate received 75 minutes per week of French instruction through the regular FLES (Foreign Language in the Elementary School) program offered to all students.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to provide a comparison of the relative effectiveness of partial immersion and FLES programs. FLES classes in the state currently range from 10 minutes to 50 minutes each session and meet from once to five times per week. Gates County also has the first partial immersion program in the state. The typical partial immersion program involves a teacher conducting content-based classes in a foreign language for at least half the school day, every day. Teachers must have near-native fluency because no English is spoken in the classroom.

Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. Are there differences in achievement between partial immersion and FLES groups as measured by the California Achievement Test (CAT) for language, reading, math, and by the total battery?
2. Are there differences in achievement between partial immersion and FLES groups as measured by the North Carolina achievement tests for social studies and science?
3. Are there differences in achievement between partial immersion and FLES groups as measured by the American Association of teachers of French (AATF) FLES Test?

Sample

The 57 students who completed grades 2 and 3 at Sunbury Elementary School during 1988-90 were the subjects in this study. Parents volunteered their children to participate in the first immersion program in North Carolina after attending awareness sessions held at the school. The 28 volunteer students were in the partial immersion group and the remaining 29 were in the FLES group. Handicapped children participated in the FLES classes, but they were not included in the statistical analysis since their testing program differs from the other students. All of these students had participated in a FLES program in the first grade.

Partial Immersion Group

Students studied English language arts and reading with an English-speaking teacher. The rest of the day they studied math, science, and social studies with the French-speaking teacher. Art, music, and physical education were conducted by specialists and by the French teacher, depending on the school's schedule.

FLES Group

The FLES students stayed in their self-contained classroom with their English-speaking teacher. They had art, music, and physical education with the teacher or specialists according to the same school schedule. In addition, they had the French FLES program taught in their classroom by a specialist for 30 minutes every other day.

Methods

The California Achievement Test (CAT) was used to measure student performance in language, reading, math, and in the total battery. The third-grade level of the North Carolina Social Studies test and the North Carolina Science Test was used to measure student performance in these two subjects. The AATF FLES Tests for Division 1A and 3B were used to measure student performance in French listening skills. For the most able students, it was also used to assess French speaking skills.

The research design was quasi-experimental in nature. Since random sampling was not possible, analysis of convariance (ANCOVA) was used to control statistically for initial differences which might confound the differences between groups.

Two covariates were employed. A socioeconomic scale (SES) was based on the highest education level of one parent or guardian in the home, the highest occupation code of one partner or guardian in the home, and free/reduced/or paid lunch status. A summative score was computed for the SES index used as one covariate.

The second covariate was IQ. The CTB McGraw Hill Test of Cognitive skills was administered to the students in November, 1989.

Results

Student participation in the two programs was unrelated to race or gender, as shown by chi-square tests ($x^2_{(1)} = 2.1090$; $p = .1464$ for both race and gender). Seven one-way ANCOVAs were used to analyze data collected to determine the relative effectiveness of the two frequency programs. The data were arranged to correspond to the research questions.

California Achievement Tests

The analysis of CAT scores for both treatment groups revealed there was no significant difference due to treatment in language, reading, or mathematics when scores were adjusted for SES and IQ. For the total battery, program effects were not significant, but the probability was .0592. Achievement of both FLES and immersion groups were similar. Both groups scored above the national average.

North Carolina Social Studies and Science Tests

The analysis of the North Carolina Social Studies Test data yielded significant results for program effects ($p < .05$). The immersion group scored lower than the FLES group when scores were adjusted for SES and IQ. The North Carolina Science Test showed no significant effects for program. The immersion and FLES groups performed at a similar level of science achievement.

AATF FLES Test

The analysis of the AATF FLES Test results showed significant effects for the program ($p < .0001$). The immersion students outperformed the FLES students in French listening skills by 10 correct questions out of 30. In addition to the statistical data, the results of the national contest illustrate the students' skills. The second-and third-place national winners and three honorable mentions were from this partial immersion class. These students were able to describe pictures they had never seen by using complete sentences and elaborating for the full two-minute time limit.

Conclusions

The subjects in this partial immersion study were somewhat different from those in other studies. Minority students and students of varying levels of ability and socioeconomic status were served through this program. The population was not similar to many of the previous immersion studies which involved middle- and upper-middle-class students.

Covariate adjustment by SES was marginal on all tests. Covariate adjustment by IQ had a larger determining role for all subjects except for French listening skills. Students of all ability levels had similar scores on listening. Study of a second language is possible for students of all ability levels.

In one subject, social studies, the program had a significant effect ($p < .05$) on achievement when adjusted for SES and IQ. The immersion group scored 4.5 points lower than the FLES group. On a 60-item test, the partial immersion group answered 4.5 fewer questions correctly than the FLES group. Social studies achievement has not been noted in other studies except as based on teacher judgment. The students had been in the immersion program for only two years. An initial drop in achievement scores has been reported in several early immersion programs. These programs began in kindergarten and scores began to equal or surpass non-immersion groups by the fourth grade (Lambert & Tucker, 1972; Swain & Barik, 1976: Cummins & Swain, 1986; Genesee, 1985; Holobow, unpublished; Milwaukee Public Schools, 1987; Curtain & Pesola, 1988; Howe, 1983; Shapson & Day, 1982). In fact, these researchers emphasized that longitudinal research is necessary to assess immersion programs accurately. It is somewhat surprising that this initial drop was not evident in other subject areas. Moreover, social studies is a highly language-dependent subject. Much of the academic content is expressed through the spoken or written word with pictures, maps, graphs, and other media. Students need to develop a broad French vocabulary to understand the lesson. It is also possible that the use of a teacher who is not native American affected the social studies test results, although many immersion programs use native speakers.

The study of English was not affected by the study of French. The partial immersion students performed as well as their FLES counterparts. The immersion students scored 12.14 points higher on language, 6.8 after adjustment. In reading, they scored 8.56 points higher, 3.84 after adjustment. Although these differences were not statistically significant, they do serve to show that no retardation or confusion of English occurred as a result of the immersion program.

Math instruction was delivered to immersion students in the target language only. This group outperformed the FLES group by 9.48 points, 4.63 after adjustment. Differences were not statistically significant; however, the immersion program obviously did not retard math skills. Similar results were recorded in several other studies (Swain & Barik, 1976; Curtain & Pesola, 1988; Rafferty, 1986; Shapson & Day, 1982; Fu & Edwards, 1984; Foidart, 1981).

The FLES scores for science averaged slightly higher than the immersion group, but not significantly. The FLES class averaged .73 points higher, 2.6 after adjustment. The immersion group was not handicapped by the program for science achievement.

Perhaps the most startling results were on the AATF FLES Test for French listening skills. One would expect the immersion students to outperform the FLES group in French listening skills, and they did by 10.39, 10.09 after adjustment. What is so interesting is the fact that neither IQ nor SES had a significant impact on French listening skills. All students' scores in the immersion group were within a 6-point range. FLES students' scores were within a 12-point range. Students from all SES levels and with varying levels of ability can learn a second language.

The first two years of the partial immersion program have provided a basis for comparison with the FLES program. The half-day delivery of instruction through a second language did not retard the learning of math or science. It did not hamper study of the students' native English. The gains in French listening skills and speech production were much greater in the immersion group. While FLES students performed well, they could not elaborate for several minutes using complete sentences. Production of second-language speech is a much higher level of proficiency than listening for understanding. The individual student differences in French skills of both groups were not attributable to SES or IQ. Social studies was affected by program, but this difference may equalize with time. The longitudinal studies in immersion note this phenomenon and emphasize the importance of following this group through several years. These results are short term in the context of assessing the effectiveness of acquiring second language skills.

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10

Developing Proficiency-Based Game Approaches

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Introduction

Games can become successful learning approaches if they are developed in accordance with the principles and notions of proficiency. Designing such games for communicative purposes is not an easy task, for a game approach is only as successful as the elements that compose its developmental framework.

This article defines the nuclear components of well-designed games and provides a practical "how to" approach by which foreign language teachers can articulate, develop, and implement the kinds of games that not only adhere to the practices of learning but develop functional proficiency in the students as well. In addition, five areas of developing a proficiency-based game approach will be discussed in a hierarchical order, with follow-up questions pertinent to each area.

Rationale. Why use games in the foreign language classroom? Can games and simulations facilitate the development of functional proficiency in the students?

Selection and Design. What types of games should be used? Are all games equally suited for language instruction? If not, what guidelines are to be followed in determining their suitability?

Application. What point of the class period is most appropriate for games? How should they be used? Can games serve as informal diagnostic measures?

Audience. With whom are games most effective? Will all age groups of learners benefit from engaging actively in a game approach? Can games be fine-tuned to complement and challenge students' abilities, styles of learning, and levels of proficiency?

Practice. Does practice make perfect? How much time should be devoted to games? How should evaluation be addressed?

Making the Case for Games

Teachers of foreign languages use games in their instruction for a variety of reasons. The most compelling reasons for employing games have always been to (1) minimize tension and anxiety during learning; (2) change routine tasks into playful learning opportunities; and (3) make learning fun (Kaiser; Buehler; Matheidesz; Crookall and Oxford). Fun may be the most important or basic reason for incorporating games in the classroom, but may not necessarily guarantee their success. To ensure success, a game must incorporate the basic foundation of all learning: active student involvement with the intent to learn.

The first challenge for an educator is to instill in students the desire to learn. While any game may involve students, involvement alone does not necessarily imply that learning takes place. It stands to reason, then, that there is an explicit need for expanding games into sound approaches that result in learning. For a game approach to be sound, it must take into account the physical, mental, and emotional ways in which games are used.

Games can contribute to the teaching and learning atmosphere in the classroom in various ways. For the teacher, games provide ample opportunity to increase, challenge, and rejuvenate students' motivation, affective and cognitive needs and interests, and to create an unintimidating, cooperative, and supportive learning environment of varying levels, group sizes, and settings. Games can be used profitably by all teachers at all levels without any sacrifice of basic pedagogical principles, which contradicts the belief that only young children qualify for such activities. Games, however, should not be considered substitutes for either the textbook or the teacher, but positive, low-anxiety learning tools that reinforce and restructure text content. Games can also provide additional evaluative mechanisms by indicating rate of retention, ability level, and strengths and weaknesses. Students also appreciate the relaxed, unthreatening, and enjoyable atmosphere that games afford, while being further exposed to additional information, and increasing their fluency and accuracy. Games can provide the needed elements of success and personal achievement. In addition, both students and teachers can enjoy a break from more traditional textbook-based activities.

Games and simulations can, in fact, facilitate the development of functional proficiency, provided they meet certain criteria. They must call on the students' lexical, grammatical, and syntactical knowledge in a functional, contextualized manner. The games must also sharpen language sensitivity, enlarge vocabulary, and expand idiomatic and cultural understanding of the target language on a field of cooperation not competition.

The comments above should persuade those who may still believe that the use of games is a waste of valuable classroom time. The rationale does not, however, completely answer how wisely and sensibly the games are chose and designed.

Selection and Design

Foreign language catalogs are filled with board games, card games, and computer games. While the avoidance of such games is not suggested, it is, however, strongly argued that the most valued games--those most likely to stay around for a long time--are the ones the teacher or students create (Schulz, Hacken, Smith, Omaggio).

In order to create interactive learning games, teachers and students must incorporate the qualities successful games share. With few exceptions, successful games possess these distinct qualities:

1. They are all competitive, fun, and linguistically and cognitively relevant to the student age group.
2. Content is contextualized, personalized, and, whenever applicable, highly entertaining.
3. Rules and manner of play are clearly understood by all participants.
4. Rewards (for both teachers and students) foster ongoing motivation that encourages a higher level of performance from everyone.
5. They include specific performance outcomes and learning tasks that promote natural and authentic use of the language.

While there is no magic formula for developing successful game approaches, adopting and copying these five qualities into the framework of games is crucial if students are to learn how to use the language for functional purposes in a range of interactional and sociocultural settings.

Because separate age groups of students learn a different amount of material at various rates, using diverse learning styles, techniques, and strategies with varying levels of success, it would be pedagogically unsound to assume that all language games are equally suited for proficiency-oriented instruction (Hubp, Schmidt). TPR (Total Physical Response) games that work wonders with FLES students may alienate secondary students and insult the intelligence and sophistication of college or adult learners (Olliphant). How then can their suitability be determined? What guidelines are to be followed in making this determination?

Guidelines for Developing Communicative Game Approaches

1. Establish time-specific goals, subgoals, and corresponding fixed activities with a clearly-defined rewards system.
2. Create a nonthreatening learning environment that stimulates interests, promotes learning, and prolongs self-motivation.
3. Develop an approach that enhances and supports both the content and the sophistication level of the game.
4. Design phases in your game approach that involve all ability-level students without labeling them as strong or weak. Remember that not everyone will perform at his or her full potential.
5. Empower your students by ensuring success in what they are doing. Student will not involve themselves in game approaches if they know they cannot succeed.
6. Change, if necessary, the belief of your students that they are having a "free period" with no immediate consequences for what they have learned.

Although sometimes difficult to put into practice, these guidelines do provide a working framework teachers can use to develop effective game approaches. It need not be difficult, but make no mistake--simply because a game has been expanded into an approach that meets the criteria of a proficiency orientation does not mean that communicative success is guaranteed.

Focus on the Approach

In developing game approaches and simulations that adhere to the principles of proficiency and that promote interpersonal, social, and emotional development, it is of utmost importance that teachers of foreign languages never lose sight of the ways in which the students are to use the language functionally via games.

Expressed more precisely, for a game approach to be considered proficiency-based, it must incorporate the **functions** (communicative tasks) students will be expected to perform, the thematic **content** (interactional topics) and **contexts** (situational settings) in which they will engage, and the degrees of linguistic **accuracy** and culturally appropriate sociolinguistic behavior with which students will use the target language orally or in writing.

Maintaining this focus at all times is not an impossible task. It does require careful planning, dedication, time, and a plan of action that fosters ongoing motivation and encourages higher performance from everyone. This sounds simple, but making all these components work to your advantage is the challenge of any true games approach (Liontas).

To begin with, both the learning and the learner need to be considered before identifying any objectives that may or may not be appropriate to the level at which students are performing. Only after having selected the terminal objective(s) is it advisable to begin brainstorming for possible learning outcomes. In developing a performance outcome for a game, one key question must be considered: How can the outcome promote proficiency?

The outcome could include the successful communication of a message which is clearly one of the principles of proficiency. Or the outcome could require the ability to read and write the language. In either instance, if a game is truly designed to promote functional use of the language by the learner, i.e., what a learner *can do communicatively* with the language, then the goal toward which students are working is going to be a goal that involves the successful communication of a message, either orally or in writing.

The widely-known "Hangman" game, for example, does not promote communication unless the conversation that takes place is in the target language. In this type of game students are merely required to guess letters until they recognize a word but are not expected to use it functionally.

Conversely, games like the "Wheel of Fortune," "The New $25,000 Pyramid," or "Win, Lose, or Draw" require students to buy letters, to guess and understand a phrase or an entire expression, and to describe or draw a word, category, or concept, and do include communicative purposes. If teachers of foreign languages were to develop similar games based on folk sayings or word families, for example, it can be argued that these games have outcomes that involve purposeful communication both in comprehension and expression.

The articulation of the game's outcome requires that all non-essential learning be weeded out prior to sequencing essential learning in a logical, hierarchical order. The final step in an effective plan of action is the design of the right set of circumstances under which the probability of overt learning is increased.

What fuels all of these steps, however, is the teacher's approach to the task, which, regardless of personal choices, should be anchored in four simple, but very fundamental principles of success:

- Keep it simple.
- Keep it focused on student outcomes.
- Provide maximum flexibility.
- Assure maximum participation.

What determines the difference between success and failure is the degree to which students respond--both positively and negatively--to the game approach. Even the most well-designed, sophisticated, creative games will yield only marginal, short-lived results, if students do not take an active interest in the games in which they are involved. To assure optimal results, it may be necessary for students to develop their own communicative game approaches. Brophy (41) maintains that "if teachers were recreation program directors, they could solve motivation problems merely by finding out what their clients like to do and arranging for them to do it."

Unfortunately, educators are not usually recreation program directors. Foreign language teachers, however, know what students want besides fulfilling a two-year requirement of foreign language, and that is to be able to understand the target language when it is spoken to them and to express themselves in the language. Within this context, they normally want to accomplish this goal first orally and then in writing. Keeping this in mind, teachers should not become involved in the web of who does what work and with whom, if students are truly to be given the freedom as well as the responsibility to create their own interactive games.

Although some foreign language teachers might think that student do not have the aptitude for creating language games, some student-made games are more creative and sophisticated in their design and application than the ones created by teachers. What is their secret? Self-initiated motivation. A word of caution: it is easy but simplistic to view student-made games only in terms of motivation. While it is true that motivation reflects the state of need or desire within an individual, the individual may lack the guidance needed for developing an effective game.

There are several ways in which language teachers can address this need. First and foremost, students need to view games as vehicles for learning. Students' needs and interests are best served when games become the field for learning and cooperation and not the field of competition. Little will be gained if the focus is place solely on who is going to win by how may points (Lee).

Second, the objective of the game must be clearly defined. The more explicitly it is stated, the more easily students will be able to demonstrate cooperative learning throughout the game. It almost goes without saying that their performance and behavior during game time must validate the learning.

Third, a specific time frame within which students must complete their game must be set. In keeping students on schedule, two further issues require close examination: (1) Is the time invested by students leading to the objective? Are students doing what is expected of them? and (2) Is the time invested by students leading to learning? If the answer to any of these questions is no, teachers should either halt the project or monitor the progress of the students more closely and maintain their focus on learning by making the necessary adjustments.

To reiterate what has been said so far: foreign language teachers should first generate and reinforce overt behavior relevant to the terminal objective of the game; then systematically observe and interpret the student behavior in terms of the expected performance outcome(s); and finally, monitor and adjust the process form start to finish, as needed.

At all times, students should be given every possible opportunity to be both expressive and unintimidated during the design process. What impedes or facilitates the healthy growth of a game approach is not so much whether the goals and objectives of the game have been clearly articulated to the students, but the way students delegate the specific tasks and the responsibilities among themselves (Moskowitz; Birchbichler; Nerenz and Knop).

There can be no question that the more diverse the work groups are in terms of abilities, achievement, sex, cultural groups, and motivation levels, the better the end results will be. Ideally, each student in every group will have an influence in the design, format, and application of the game approach. Beyond the division of mutual responsibility and the quality of the cooperative effort, two additional questions must be considered: (1) What language should students use while working on their game approach--the target language only? and (2) Should all age groups be actively involved in the development of a game approach?

At times, the development of game approaches may be an excellent opportunity for higher level students to practice their communicative skills of arguing and defending in the target language. At other times, the sole use of the target language during the developmental process may negate the belief in the students that they can interdependently reach and exceed their own goals and objectives in a timely fashion. In either instance, a clear decision based on the students' present level of skill development and linguistic performance is in order (Siskin and Spinelli).

The issue of whether all students--from young to adult--should be entrusted with the responsibility of developing game approaches depends largely upon the ability level of the students to accomplish the task at hand within a reasonable time-frame, and the maturity level of the students to handle the responsibility with enough autonomy and sensitivity for the anticipated quality of learning.

No matter what the final decision(s) on this matter, all students--regardless of age, ability, and level--should be afforded the opportunity to develop and test their own game approach collectively. How else will foreign language teachers find out that students are indeed accomplishing the task at hand, if not by trial-and-error?

Focus on Audience

Games have traditionally been associated with young audiences. To assume, however, that only a young audience can profit from engaging actively in a game approach would be very naive. What sets each group of learners apart is not the age factor, but the specific variables that are relevant and immediate only to that group. The success of a game, no matter how much we would like for it to be true, does not and will not transfer from one classroom to another.

Because different games will produce different results with specific groups of learners, it is prudent and of obvious educational value for foreign language teachers to fine tune each game approach to the point where the individual needs and interests of most learners in each classroom are not only being addressed but also met successfully. Under such conditions then, games can and will become indispensable learning tools in the hands of a skilled teacher who knows how to tailor an interactive game to each and every audience.

While any age group can play a game dealing with animals, for example, to practice critical auditory discrimination and reflective listening, it is less likely that an adult learner would act as freely as a young child in acting out the activities. For example, the child, having matched the sounds heard on an audio cassette to the animals on a picture card, mimics the animal for her group to guess. The adult, on the other hand, could easily engage in creating (orally or in writing) riddles about animals, then sharing them with the entire class for anyone to guess. Thus, similar games should require different audiences to engage in different communicative tasks.

Matching tasks with language skills becomes increasingly important as students progress towards more advanced games. At the basal level, students can play "who am I" games by giving one or two word answers to questions or clues posed by the teacher, whereas at more advanced levels, students themselves can play "whodunit" or "blind dates" games that require the use of more complex language skills like reading and interpreting complex clues, jotting down in the target language information derived from clues prior to formulating oral questions to generate more clues leading to solving the mystery (see also "Family of Amnesiacs" in Omaggio, 1986, 203-06).

Focus on Practice

Generally speaking, it can be said that without practice there will be no perfection. Since practice will assure progress but not necessarily perfection or correctness, there must be a concentrated effort to control the duration, frequency, quantity, and, most important, the quality of the game's use(s). Obviously, the smallest amount of language material that still maintains adequate meaning, which is the key factor, answers the first of the four factors. Using meaning and not mathematics in dividing the material strongly supports the concept of teaching and practicing language in context.

The issues of how long and how often become central as students gain more confidence and familiarity with the game each time it is used. It is safe to say that the shortest amount of time needed for winning the game with an intense effort will make the difference of whether the game will be used again or not. Imagine playing a game that never seems to end or a game like "Trivial Pursuit" or "Jeopardy" in which players answer only one out of twenty questions. How involved can students be in such games?

For a game to be effective and enjoyable, the responses students give need to follow the four C's, in other words, they must be **clear, complete, concise, and, correct**. Whether or not the given answers must always be correct is left to the discretion of the individual teacher. Naturally an established set of rules, procedures, and detailed instructions for scoring, recording, and evaluating progress will minimize much of the emotional tension and many of the disputes among students during game time.

Conclusion

Although there are no absolutes in teaching and learning, it is helpful to keep in mind the five areas of developing proficiency-based game approaches for language instruction. The fact that individual teachers will approach interactive games with different agenda in mind can be viewed as a welcome and necessary change to conventional classroom approaches. Meanwhile, those teachers who are inspired to begin their own multisensory game approaches should never forget that the most intriguing game is always the one that takes five minutes to learn and a lifetime to master.

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